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Child Care and Training

**by MARION L. FAEGRE and
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The happy child is a healthy child.
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Child Care and Training

by

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Sixth Edition Revised

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Sixth edition

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PREFACE TO THE SIXTH EDITION

The widespread interest in the training of young children, as shown in the demand for the many editions of this book, has been most gratifying to the authors. In peacetime, parents and others entrusted with the care of children constantly seek information about the needs of the normal child, in order to create a favorable situation for the development of their children and to forestall undesirable habits. In wartime, when so many conditions arise that are unfavorable for children, it is more important than ever that parents show such interest.

In preparing the sixth edition of this book, as in the earlier editions, some revision and modification of the text have been made to bring the material up to date and to include the results of recent studies. However, the soundness of the contents and the basic plan of the book have made any considerable change unnecessary. In compliance with the rulings of the War Production Board there has been some rearrangement of the material in order to conserve space and to save paper. In this rearrangement there has been no reduction in content.

In a preface to an earlier edition, we stated that it was our hope this book would be of value to those who see that merely becoming a father or mother does not bring the knowledge necessary to be a good parent. That this hope has been realized is clear from the manner in which the book has been received. We also pointed out that its contents had grown out of the extension courses and study groups offered by the Institute of Child Welfare of the University of Minnesota, and the questions asked by parents themselves in those courses. The Institute was organized in 1925 for the purposes of making scientific studies of the development of children, training future workers in the field, and bringing to parents

the information accumulated in its own and other research centers.

The authors wish to acknowledge their indebtedness to Dr. R. E. Scammon of the Department of Anatomy; Dr. Irvine McQuarrie of the Department of Pediatrics; Dr. Edith Boyd, formerly of the Institute staff; Dr. Margaret S. Chaney, formerly of the Department of Home Economics; the late Dr. Josephine C. Foster, and the late Miss Edith D. Dixon, both formerly on the Institute staff; also to Dr. Florence L. Goodenough of the Institute staff.

M. L. F. and J. E. A.

University of Minnesota

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Chapter 1

THE YOUNG CHILD

I am so sorry for babies
The poor little gabies!
They always are being caressed
And dressed and undressed
And diapered, stockinged, and sandaled
And handled and dandled
And lifted or put into bed
And forcibly fed
And having their character soured
By being bescoured
And poked into, polished, and scrubbed
And endlessly tubbed.

And then they are barked at and booed at
And mewed at and cooed at
And asked where and which are their toes,
How some animal "goes"
And suchlike ridiculous questions
That spoil their digestions
And ruin whatever remains
Of their infantile brains.

They're worried to smile "just for Fanny"
Or Auntie or Granny
And pinched and wrong-ended and squeezed
And fiendishly teased.
Their privacy isn't protected
Nor ever respected,
For folks are invited to peep
And see them asleep!

No ifs, but, perhapses, or maybes —
I'm sorry for babies.*

* Arthur Guiterman, "Sympathy for the Babies," in *Gaily the Troubadour*, Dutton, 1936. Reprinted by courtesy of author and publisher.

Every single one of Mr. Guiterman's nonsensical statements is true! And yet, I wonder, if he looked back upon the children of a century or two ago, if he wouldn't feel that the children of today are really very fortunate. What must it have been like to be a child in the days when the preacher prescribed for rickets, and when the remedy for it called for such ingredients as earthworms and snails! When little girls of four were expected to sit primly at their knitting, and when at least one boy of two and one-half is said to have known the entire catechism!

In those days, too, the idea that children had very special needs, because of their differences from adults, was wholly unknown. Instead of being carefully fed on a selected diet, they often did not even have a chance to sit down at the table, but stood while they ate—waiting, of course, until their elders were served. That our age has been termed “the century of the child” gives us a faint suggestion of the change in attitude that has come about. For the welfare of the world it is important that everyone should be interested in those years of life when the child's habits and mind are being formed and the whole future trend of his life colored and influenced.

So accustomed have we become to the modern viewpoint that it is hard for us to realize this improvement in the status of children. It is not too much to say that the emphasis has been reversed; whereas in the past childhood was considered important only in so far as it was the prelude to adulthood, childhood is now recognized as of major importance in its own right. In other words, if the child is father to the man, we must see to it that the man has a good father, that childhood shall be rich and development unimpeded.

IMPORTANCE OF THE EARLY YEARS

Solitary great minds from Plato to Locke have realized the importance of childhood, but it has remained

for the present century to create a widespread interest in the preschool child. While scientific child study has been going on for fifty years, it is only recently that events have combined to open our eyes to the tremendous significance of early childhood. The first World War was one factor in bringing out pointedly how valuable its children are to a nation. In America almost half the men examined for service showed physical defects of greater or less seriousness, and 6 per cent of the men had to be rejected entirely.

Interest in the welfare of children has been greatly stimulated throughout the nation by means of a series of national conferences called by the various presidents to consider the problems of childhood. The first of these, called by President Theodore Roosevelt in 1909, took up the problem of the dependent child. One of the important recommendations of this meeting was that dependent children who must be taken out of their own homes should, as far as possible, be placed in foster homes instead of in institutions. The Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor, established in 1912, was the direct outcome of investigations made in connection with this first White House Conference.

In 1918 the Government instituted the Children's Year, for the purpose of making much needed studies of the physical condition of young children. In 1919, at the close of the Children's Year, President Wilson called a second White House Conference. The findings indicated that the physical defects found in the men drafted for army service could in large part be traced back to early childhood.

By the time President Hoover called the third White House Conference, in 1929, interest had spread and deepened so that not only the dependent child and the physical well-being of children were considered, but all children and all aspects of their mental, emotional, and

social life. After a preliminary and preparatory period covering sixteen months, in which twelve hundred experts gave intensive study to the needs of the forty-five million growing children of our country, reports were drawn up which have been effective in influencing public opinion to an extent hitherto unprecedented. From the widely disseminated findings of this and the previous conferences attention has been directed as never before to the paramount importance of a child's early years.

A fourth White House Conference, called in 1939 by President Franklin D. Roosevelt, had as its topic for discussion "Children in a Democracy," and considered the problems of "how children can best be helped to grow into the kind of citizens who will know how to preserve and protect our democracy."

MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE

Indeed, from the standpoint of disease and loss of life, the significance of the early years has long been recognized. Of all deaths in the United States, over one-third occur below the age of six. While it is true that the vast majority of these deaths occur very soon after birth, nevertheless the percentage of deaths during the preschool years is high.

A significant saving of infant life has been accomplished in the United States in the last twenty-five years. From a death rate of almost one hundred per thousand live babies born, in 1915, the loss has gradually been reduced to below fifty per thousand in 1939, "the first time in the history of the registration area," according to the United States Public Health Service, that such favorable conditions have prevailed. A life saved in the preschool period usually means another adult for the nation, as the fall of the death rate after these early susceptible years is rapid and striking. The

frequency of infectious disease is highest in the early years. Ninety per cent of the cases of measles and whooping cough, for example, occur under the age of five, as well as more than 95 per cent of the deaths from these diseases.

RAPID GROWTH

The prevention of disease is also of immense importance because of effect on growth. On the physical side the first years are the period of most rapid growth. Disease uses up energy that is necessary for development of both body and mind. During the first five months of life the baby doubles his weight. By the end of the first year his birth weight is tripled. From that age on, throughout life, there is a gradual slowing down of the growth process. We realize something of the difference between the rates of growth at ten months and at ten years when we consider that if the same rate of growth persisted up to the tenth year, the normal child would then weigh about 135,000 pounds.

Baldwin has shown that children who have rickets, who have a prolonged history of disease, who have bad tonsil conditions or adenoid growths, do not grow in height and weight as do children without these handicaps.

PHYSICAL DEFECTS

Many reports have been written on the number of physical defects in children of various ages and economic levels. These reports are based chiefly on single physical examinations of large numbers of children, without accompanying histories or follow-up examinations. The items most frequently noted are dental caries, enlarged tonsils, and posture defects. We do not as yet have adequate standards of normal posture changes with age with which to evaluate the significance for future health of postural variations in young

children. Whether enlarged tonsils are infected or not is a matter for careful medical consideration of the individual child. Dental caries need to be cared for, but we still do not know for sure how to prevent tooth decay. Obviously such surveys do not give us an adequate picture of the health of children.

MENTAL GROWTH

In this period mental growth takes place at a far greater rate than at any later time. Not only is the nervous system developing most rapidly, but the child is acquiring many of the fundamental habits that he will carry through life. It is above all the period of beginnings. The child is acquiring those habits which are at the foundation of linguistic, intellectual, and mechanical skills, and those emotional and social attitudes upon which his later adjustment is based. Although he will forget, to a large degree, the experience of his early years, he cannot discard the attitudes and impressions that are being built into his character at this time.

On the side of mental hygiene the period is of great significance. Much unhappiness and inability to cope with the conditions of adult life are thought to be the result of unfortunate early environment. Only too often parents accept a child's emotional make-up as though it were foreordained. He is stubborn, they say, he is shy, he is domineering, he is quarrelsome, he is very affectionate, he is extremely sensitive, he is sly, he is truthful, as though these characteristics were to be accepted as given aspects of personality determined at birth and not to be modified. As a matter of fact the modern study of young children is indicating that such traits are in large part due to the manner in which the child is treated by adults and other children rather than to inheritance. The parent who has the ideal of complete and unquestioning obedience, and who is forceful and consistent

enough to obtain it, is likely to have a child who, when he goes to school, distresses a good teacher and delights a poor one by always doing what he is told and furthermore by always waiting to be told what to do. His whole attitude is that of finding out what authority requires and then complying, an attitude which, if maintained, is likely to result in incompetence, inefficiency, and unhappiness in adulthood.

SOCIAL ADAPTATION

The social adjustment of the child is receiving attention as we begin to appreciate how early in life his personality is taking shape and color. It was thought formerly that the very young child did not necessarily enjoy or profit by companionship with children of his own age. Experience in the nursery schools has shown that this is not entirely true. While he is not interested primarily in group play or group activities, he can learn to accept group standards, he can learn habits of sharing, of taking turns, of taking hard knocks, without undue resentment. Early adaptation to others and the acquisition of a tolerance towards varied personalities are distinct assets. The little child is also happier and freer from strain when he is with children of like age and development.

In other words, the individual's habits of reacting to other persons are being formed in these years. While the exaggerated view which held that the child's personality is fixed by the time he is six or seven years old is untrue, it is a commonplace that one's attitudes, prejudices, likes, and opinions are affected to a very great degree by the conditions of one's early years.

It is the responsibility of parents to provide conditions that make for mental health in their children, to maintain a sympathetic and understanding atmosphere in which children may express their thoughts and feel-

ings and meet with intelligent response. This calls for a knowledge of the developing needs of the child.

THE OLDER CHILD AND THE ADOLESCENT

When a child reaches school age, he automatically passes out of that period in which his activities are centered almost exclusively in the home and steps into a world where many new adjustments must be made before he reaches maturity. Although no abrupt changes take place at any stage of a child's development, it is convenient to divide the years of his growth into phases or periods distinguished by one or another group of characteristics. Thus the earliest years are a period of rapid development both in bodily size and in the acquisition of habits. During the school years a child accumulates a great amount of fundamentally useful knowledge about the world in which he is growing up and develops more marked basic habits and more definite personality trends. The last stage, adolescence, is characterized by the interest the youth begins to take in himself in relation to the world, by the ripening of his interests and the imminence of his emancipation from his home, as well as by the awakening and development of sex interest, which will influence his adult relationships.

The spontaneous, gradual processes of growth go on continuously. Each phase merges into the next, as new demands are made, new interests are awakened, and new experiences bring about adaptation of both individual and environment. The strikingly obvious difference between a young child and an adolescent is that for the latter the period of helplessness is definitely past. The school child has developed habits of initiative and independence. While he has, perhaps, no stronger will of his own than he had earlier, he now has more opportunities to act for himself, because he is no longer con-

fined to the limits of his own home and immediate neighborhood. As his physical horizon expands, so his mental life is stimulated by new ideas and knowledge. He gets to know other children and finds that there are standards of living, of thought, and of conduct quite unlike those of his family, which he has up to this time assumed were generally accepted. Whereas on the whole he is becoming less suggestible than he was as a very young child, he is influenced more than he knows by opinions and ideas absorbed from a succession of teachers. He is very susceptible to the judgments and criticisms of his mates, who begin to command the place of importance in his life formerly occupied by his parents. He begins to be dimly aware that he must conform to the herd rules binding the society in which he lives.

Early habits which took much thought and care in the preschool years have now become largely automatic. Eating, dressing, sleeping, and washing have fallen into a pattern, and the efforts of child and family are centered around many new problems, such as progressing through the school grades, building up friendships, and acquiring skill in sports and games.

Increasing muscular control helps to make the development of bodily skills a thing of paramount interest. Skating and swimming, tennis and football, playing the piano, and driving a car are not only great fun in themselves but are easily learned now and will be of use to a child for many years to come.

His enthusiasm for many different kinds of activity is the child's way of trying out his environment, of seeing what he can do. In his trial and error searchings he locates abilities in himself that may have been unsuspected before. But this cannot come about unless he has a relatively free environment, with opportunities for self-expression of many kinds.

As tastes and interests develop and new experiences

crowd a child's days, practice in meeting these situations with less adult supervision brings ease in handling some, and less satisfying conditions in others. It is essential that a child have the gratification accompanying the accomplishment of difficult tasks in order that he shall respond with energy and exhilaration to constantly arising new problems. A child who goes to school with relatively unformed habits of work soon encounters numerous new situations. Some of these he meets with pleasurable success; in others he flounders. If he is to build up the self-confidence necessary to a wholesome personality there must be more of the latter occasions. This applies to his relations to persons, as well as to tasks. If he is consistently outdone by an older brother remarkable for his ability in sports, he will need something about which he can feel equally proud and happy in order that his personality may expand.

The importance of the general atmosphere of the home during later childhood and adolescence can hardly be overstressed. Although from the point of view of physical, emotional, and mental health a child's future adjustment hinges on the beginning he has made in the preschool years, it is equally true that that development may be thwarted during these later years if the inevitable changes in his needs are not understood. It is necessary to emphasize this fact, because many parents who were sensible in their treatment of their children while they were little tend to forget that children grow up. Unless parents are constantly on the alert they may find that they have acquired habits of supervision and guidance that are hard to shake off. If, however, a parent keeps in mind the necessity of allowing his child to make as many decisions for himself as possible, all along the way, this is unlikely to happen. But a child who has seldom been allowed to use his own judgment and learn by his own mistakes will, when he tries to assert his

independence — as he is almost bound to do by the age of twelve or fourteen — make many foolish and impulsive decisions.

Just as shelter and protection were necessary in the early years, so fending for himself and taking chances are meat and drink to the older child. He needs to get away from home, to go away to camp or to school. He needs to rely on himself when it comes to studying, selecting his clothes, and spending his time. We might almost speak of this period as a time of weaning the child from his home, except that weaning implies a short time, while the process that goes on while a child is becoming an adult stretches over a long span of years. By slow and almost imperceptible degrees the light-hearted, casual, and carefree attitudes of childhood are laid aside, and self-reliance, good judgment, and competence in making decisions are gradually gained.

HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT

Many and long have been the controversies over the parts that heredity and environment have to play in the developing individual. "See, he has inherited his father's sociable nature," triumphantly points out an adherent to the theory that we cannot change much the innate characteristics of the individual. He forgets that had different circumstances prevailed during childhood, the person spoken of might have become a sullen recluse no matter with what propensities for jolly social life he may have been born.

Both persons and objects in the world about us are products not only of the materials of which they are made but of the surroundings and conditions to which they are exposed. The same soil that without water is a desert may, under irrigation, produce luxuriant vegetation. On the other hand, no matter how much we may water a rock, we will be unable to produce a single blos-

som. So with human beings, the original materials vary, and conditions under which those materials develop into character and personality vary also. It requires the combination of the two, both the material and the life-experiences which are called heredity and environment, to explain man as a whole. In human beings we use the term *inheritance* to describe those characteristics that the individual gets from his ancestors, and the term *environment* to describe those things that are brought to the individual by the surroundings and conditions in which he develops.

The process of inheritance is much more complex than we formerly supposed it to be. Every individual born into the world combines a number of traits never before met in one human being. The traits may have appeared singly or in small groups in remote or near ancestors, on one or both sides of the family, but never in quite the same combination. We now realize that there are almost limitless possibilities for combination in the hundreds of traits of the parents.

We are unable to predict what combination of ancestral traits any one child may possess. The inheritance of some of the simpler bodily traits can be predicted with a fair degree of accuracy. For instance, it is extremely unlikely that two blue-eyed parents will have a brown-eyed child. It is highly probable that the children of two tall parents will be above the average in height. Many of the predictions with regard to heredity are true as applied to groups rather than as applied to individuals. But no one, in the present state of our knowledge, can predict the adult personality of any child yet to be born; no one can know exactly what mental and physical traits the child will inherit, what the effect of their combination will be, nor to what sort of environment the child will be exposed.

Observers and students of human life have come to

realize that *environment* has a deeper meaning than mere neighborhood — a meaning much more subtle and far reaching than the accidents of fortune, birth, or living conditions. This environment, so important for character and personality making, includes very subtle things such as the amount or lack of love and understanding, the cooperation or maladjustments of the parents, even such apparently trivial things as playthings or the tone of voice in which the child is addressed.

We have then an enormously complex individual coming into contact with an equally complex and constantly changing environment. The situation is so intricate that some thinkers have thrown their emphasis on either one side or the other and have taken heredity and environment to be two opposing forces, one of which will conquer in the end. More modern thought conceives the personality, as we have said, to be the result of the environment working upon the inherited tendencies. It is as false to say that training is useless because one inherits certain characteristics as it is to say that an individual can be converted into any kind of person desired by placing him in a specific environment. Just because a family for generations has had a reputation for uncontrolled temper is no reason for refusing to attempt to train the children to control their tantrums. It is equally unreasonable for parents to refuse to recognize differences in ability among their children. Children are born with certain potential characteristics and tendencies, but if the right conditions for the development of these tendencies are not provided they may never appear.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Because of the unique combination of ancestral traits that appears in each individual, there are differences between children in the same families. In no one person

do we see realized all the potentialities with which he was endowed at birth. There are present in each individual many possibilities that will never be utilized by the forces surrounding that person. The effect of environment is to weed out some traits and to emphasize others. Difficulties or lacks are often exaggerated by the circumstances of the individual's life. Recognition of the individual differences to be found in each family of children may lead to planning an environment which stimulates to a greater extent the individual characteristics and potentialities of each child.

Let us suppose three brothers, Walter, Henry, and Alfred, are born in a family which on the mother's side descends from a distinguished line of musicians and on the father's side from persons with no ability or interest in music. Walter inherits a great musical ability, Henry an average amount, and Alfred none at all. We are safe in assuming that no matter how much Alfred is with his mother's family, he will never be a great musician, since there is practically no inherent ability there for a musical environment to work upon. But perhaps Walter is, when a small baby, entirely isolated from his mother's family and brought up in a community which never sings, which possesses no musical instruments of any kind. There is little doubt that Walter will express himself in singing and whistling, but this expression is bound to be crude, and he will never be able by himself to achieve the musical heights that might have been his if he had lived in a group of musicians who could have helped him during his formative years. When we come to the third brother, Henry, who has an average amount of musical ability, it is safe to suppose that if he is brought up with his mother's musical family, his mediocre talents will be so trained and his interests so stimulated that he may pass for a person of unusual musical ability, though he will never be a great artist.

In other words, environment needs something to work on, and our greatest results come from a very favorable environment working on originally great material; but when ordinary material is affected by the proper environment, we may still get results far above the average. And, of course, when poor environment works on poor material, we get the individuals who flood our correctional institutions.

In conclusion we may say that the human being is a product of both inheritance and environment, neither one of which is effective without the other. Since the heredity of a human being is determined by the time he is born, our task as parents is to supply the child with the best possible environment. Environment means much more than the kind of house the child lives in; it includes all the stimuli which surround him.

QUESTIONS

1. What bad conditions may result if the child is neglected up to the age of six?
2. How may it be possible for a home to be an excellent environment for adults and at the same time a poor one for children?
3. Why can we not predict the adult personality of a child when he is born?
4. In the years from 1887 to 1918 the following organizations arose as evidence of interest in the young child. What has been the influence of each? Why?
1887: First Social Settlement, New York
1892: First Infant Welfare Clinic, Paris
1900: First Juvenile Court, Chicago
1912: U.S. Children's Bureau
1918: Establishment of Nursery Schools in England, under the Education Act
5. Discuss the statement often made that young children do not enjoy playing in a group.
6. What discoveries have recently stimulated interest in the preschool child?

Chapter 2

PHYSICAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD

THE CHILD AND THE ADULT

"Babies are a mystery to me," said a young father. "They may be interesting after they are two or three years old, but I don't see that they do anything but eat and sleep and cry when they're younger."

To understand the living, plastic being, the "bundle of unknown possibilities" that a newborn baby is said to be, parents and others who have children under their care should know something about growth, about what is going on in a baby while his eating and sleeping and playing and crying are making those changes that will gradually alter him from a helpless little being into a responsive, mature adult.

Since the physical welfare of a child is so important to his general welfare, we should have some way of judging the child's progress. In recent years much has been done to set up standards of measurement for plant, animal, and human growth, and to show us how growth proceeds. Imperfect as our present standards are, they still furnish us with the best index to a child's health that we have.

DIFFERENCES IN BODILY PROPORTIONS

Although the old idea that a child is a tiny model of the adult has been dispelled, the differences in form and structure are not always noted. The child is forced to adjust himself to household arrangements that have been worked out to suit grownups. The resulting strain and clumsiness in the child, which might be prevented, often irritate the adult and harm the child.

The child's bodily proportions differ considerably

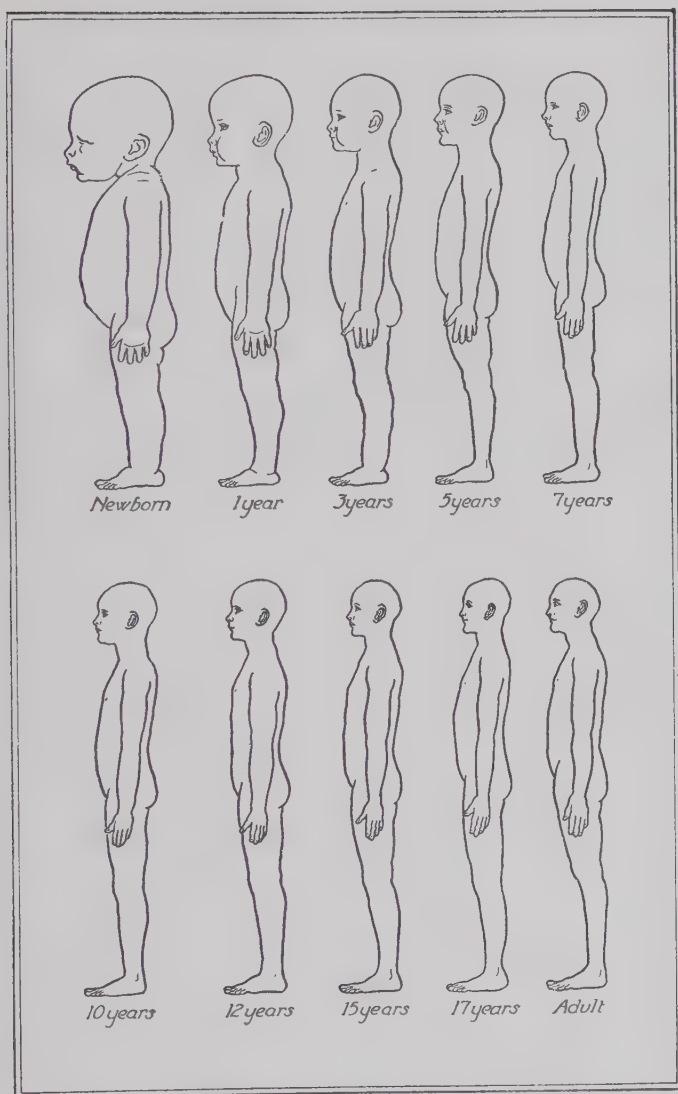


Figure 1. Silhouettes of lateral views of the body, showing the general changes in body form between birth and early maturity (Scammon).

from those of the adult. The functions of the different parts have not yet been fully developed in the child, although the form is perfected; all the more finely coordinated muscle movements which later make possible delicate adjustments of the hand and fingers, for example, are a matter of slow development.

A child may be fidgety and restless at the table. When we search for a reason, we find that he is sitting on a chair planned for adult use. It is so high that his feet dangle without touching the floor, yet so low that his shoulders and arms barely come above the top of the table. Our criticism of his manner of holding a fork will also be less sharp when we realize the difficulty of making fine muscle adjustments with very limited practice. It is essential that equipment should be modified to the needs of childhood.

An important difference between children and adults is that of the area of skin. This area is, in children, two or three times as great in proportion to bodily weight as it is in adults. In order that the child's body may conserve heat and still perform its work of heat regulation, it is necessary to adapt the clothing to these ends. The child, with his large skin area, is more sensitive to changes in temperature than the adult. In winter it is necessary to clothe him lightly, though warmly. In summer his clothing must be light and loose. Evaporation of moisture and irradiation of heat are taking place more rapidly than in the body of the adult.

The greater amount of skin surface, with easy loss of heat, affects the child in another way. Since heat is lost more easily, more frequent stoking becomes necessary. The child needs more food in proportion to his size than the adult. He needs to eat more often. The adult need eat only enough to keep his body in repair, while the child must constantly add to the size and strength of the structure he is rearing. The child must not only re-

place what he loses through activity and the breaking down of worn-out cells, but add enough for growth. Because he must always be adding to his bony structure and teeth his diet must include a large supply of milk and green vegetables.

The difference between child and adult may be characterized by saying that the child's energy goes to maintenance, activity, and growth, whereas the adult's goes to maintenance and activity only.

PERIODS OF CHILDHOOD

Infancy is usually regarded as extending through the first year, or until the child is walking. Early childhood falls into two parts, the runabout period from one to three years, and the active period from three to six. Middle childhood, a time of relatively slow growth, extends from six or seven to ten years. Late childhood, characterized again by more rapid growth, takes the child up to his thirteenth or fourteenth year. Adolescence, or youth, constitutes the last period of growth, and extends from the thirteenth or fourteenth year to the adult period, which is entered upon at eighteen or twenty.

WEIGHT

The baby at birth weighs about seven and one-half pounds, boys usually weighing about one-half pound more than girls. While there is a little loss of weight immediately after birth, this is regained in from ten days to two weeks. The first months are the time of most rapid growth. By the time he is five months old the baby weighs twice what he did at birth; when he has completed his first year he weighs approximately three times what he did when born. During the second year the child gains about one-half pound a month; from the third to the sixth years about five pounds a year are added.

Since the child at eleven years weighs approximately ten times his birth weight, and since the adult weighs approximately twenty times his birth weight, it will be seen how rapidly growth takes place in the early years and how slowly it takes place later. Children cannot make up in later years what they may lose under poor conditions for development at this time.

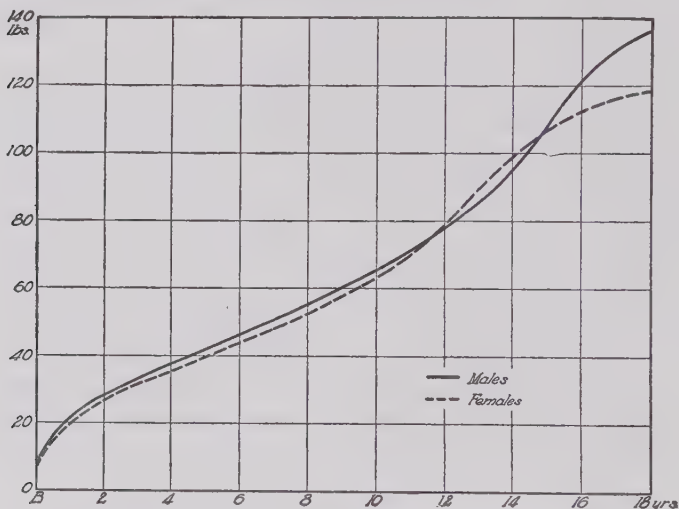


Figure 2. The growth in average body weight from birth to eighteen years.

HEIGHT

In height there is also a rapid rate of growth, as shown in Figure 3. At maturity the individual is three and one-half times his length at birth. The baby's length at birth is twenty inches. During the first year he gains about ten inches in length. It takes him until he is four years old to double his length. Children vary greatly in their height. In the early years boys are slightly taller than girls, in late childhood girls are slightly taller than boys, and in adolescence boys become decidedly taller than girls.

HEIGHT-WEIGHT TABLES

On pages 22 and 23 you will find height-weight tables for young children. In using these tables the procedure is to run along the top of the table until you find the age of your child, then down the side until you find his height. Read down and across until you find the weight. Thus, if your boy is three years old and thirty-six inches tall, you find 36 months on the top and thirty-six inches on the side of the table. Then the intersection of the two columns will show you that a child three years old and thirty-six inches tall weighs, on the average, 31 pounds. But as stated above a 7 per cent variation may be disregarded while a 10 per cent variation should lead to an examination of the child's condition. As 7 per cent of 31 pounds is approximately 2 pounds, your child may weigh anywhere from 29 to 33 pounds without the variation's being significant. Ten per cent of 31 pounds is, in round numbers, 3 pounds. This would indicate that if your child is three years old and thirty-six inches tall, his condition should be looked into if he weighs less than 28 or more than 34 pounds.

GROWTH OF PARTS OF THE BODY

The variations of growth in different parts of the body during childhood are of interest, since they progress in a certain order, from head to foot. For many years children were portrayed as adults in miniature, but this is far from true, as anyone will recognize in recalling the large size of the infant's head in proportion to its body length. After birth the growth of the head, which has during the prenatal life been disproportionately large, slows up, while the other parts of the body grow increasingly fast: the arms most rapidly, the trunk next, and the legs and feet next.

During childhood there is especially rapid growth of the lower body and the extremities; the muscles, the legs

and arms, and the hands and feet showing the greatest growth. They grow much faster in size than in strength. The muscles, which make up about one-quarter of the weight of the baby, gradually increase until they make up about two-fifths of the weight of the adult.

BONY STRUCTURE

The bones on which this body growth is based are undergoing continual changes not only in size but in number. The baby at birth has more bones than he will have at maturity. As he grows, new bones are constantly

HEIGHT-WEIGHT-AGE TABLE FOR BOYS FROM BIRTH TO SIX YEARS

Height Inches	1 Mo.	3 Mo.	6 Mo.	9 Mo.	12 Mo.	18 Mo.	24 Mo.	30 Mo.	36 Mo.	48 Mo.	60 Mo.	72 Mo.
	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.
20 in.	8											
21 in.	9	10										
22 in.	10	11										
23 in.	11	12	13									
24 in.	12	13	14									
25 in.	13	14	15	16								
26 in.		15	17	17	18							
27 in.		16	18	18	19							
28 in.			19	19	20	20						
29 in.			20	21	21	21						
30 in.			22	22	22	22	22					
31 in.				23	23	23	23	24				
32 in.				24	24	24	25	25				
33 in.					26	26	26	26	26			
34 in.						27	27	27	27			
35 in.						29	29	29	29	29		
36 in.							30	31	31	31		
37 in.							32	32	32	32	32	
38 in.								33	33	33	34	
39 in.								35	35	35	35	
40 in.									36	36	36	36
41 in.										38	38	38
42 in.										39	39	39
43 in.										41	41	41
44 in.											43	43
45 in.											45	45
46 in.												48
47 in.												50
48 in.												52
49 in.												55

Prepared by Robert M. Woodbury, Ph. D.

In using this and the three following tables, age is taken to the nearest birthday, height to the nearest inch, and weight to the nearest pound.

Children from birth to five years are not considered to be seriously undernourished unless found to be from 7 to 10 per cent below these figures.

HEIGHT-WEIGHT-AGE TABLE FOR GIRLS FROM BIRTH TO SIX YEARS

Height Inches	1 Mo.	3 Mo.	6 Mo.	9 Mo.	12 Mo.	18 Mo.	24 Mo.	30 Mo.	36 Mo.	48 Mo.	60 Mo.	72 Mo.
	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.
20 in.	8											
21 in.	9	10										
22 in.	10	11										
23 in.	11	12	13									
24 in.	12	13	14	14								
25 in.	13	14	15	15								
26 in.		15	16	17	17							
27 in.		16	17	18	18							
28 in.			19	19	19	19						
29 in.			19	20	20	20						
30 in.			21	21	21	21	21					
31 in.				22	22	23	23	23				
32 in.					23	24	24	24	25			
33 in.						25	25	25	26			
34 in.						26	26	26	27			
35 in.						29	29	29	29	29		
36 in.							30	30	30	30	31	
37 in.							31	31	31	31	32	
38 in.								33	33	33	33	
39 in.								34	34	34	34	34
40 in.									35	36	36	36
41 in.										37	37	37
42 in.										39	39	39
43 in.										40	41	41
44 in.											42	42
45 in.												45
46 in.												47
47 in.												50
48 in.												52

Prepared by Robert M. Woodbury, Ph. D.

being added, others are being fused together. The anterior fontanelle or soft spot in the child's head should be closed by the time he is one and one-half years of age.

The composition of the bones in the child is different from that in the adult. The child's bones still have an area of growth at the ends, and have not yet been completely calcified or hardened.

Because of a variation in the rate at which bones harden, some writers have proposed that this be used as a measure of development. The condition of the wrist bones has been used as a practical index of this development. By means of X-ray photographs a definite sex difference has been observed; that is, the bones harden earlier in the case of girls than of boys.

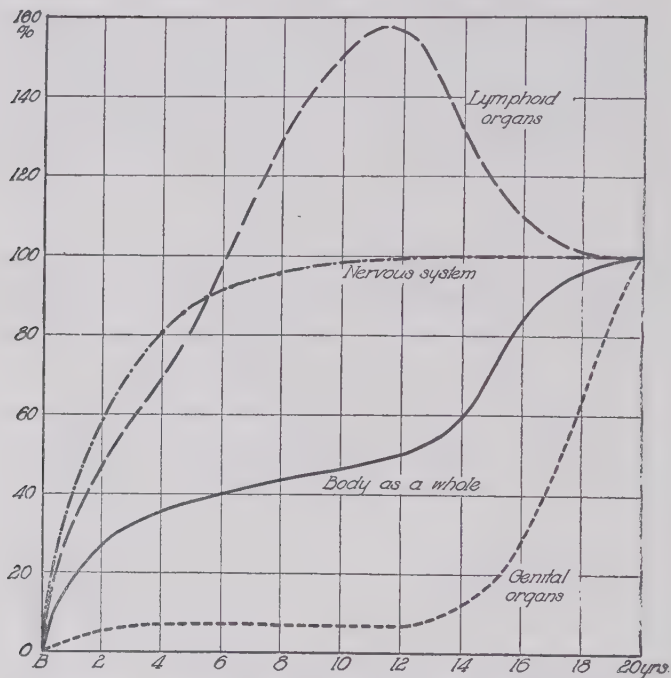


Figure 3. The four main types of growth followed by various parts and organs of the body in postnatal life (Scammon).

TEETH

The teeth appear in two sets: the first or temporary teeth, 20 in number; and the second or permanent teeth, 32. The eruption of the teeth takes place earlier in girls than in boys. The first tooth usually appears between the ages of six and seven months. Some variations from this are not unusual. *The first teeth, while irregular in* their time of appearance, are all formed in the jaws before the baby's birth.* The mother's diet during pregnancy and while nursing the baby determines the soundness of these teeth when they are being laid down in soft tissue. Her diet should be very carefully balanced. Of great importance also is the child's diet during the years before

the permanent teeth erupt. Like the milk teeth, they are being formed high up in the jaws, ready to push their way into their places when the time comes, when the roots of the first teeth have been absorbed into the tissue of the jaw. One permanent tooth (the sixth year molar) is ready and waiting from birth on, to act as a lock tooth, in order that the proper position of the front teeth may be assured. At the age of two and one-half years, twenty teeth should have erupted.

The approximate time of the eruption of the teeth is shown in the following table. Some variation from these figures may be expected.

TEMPORARY OR MILK TEETH

2 lower central incisors	6 to 9 months
4 upper incisors	8 to 12 months
2 lower lateral incisors.....	12 to 15 months
4 anterior molars	12 to 15 months
4 canines (stomach or eye teeth)	18 to 24 months
4 back molars	24 to 30 months

PERMANENT TEETH

4 first molars	6 years
8 incisors	6 to 8 years
8 bicuspid (take place of temporary molars) ..	10 to 12 years
4 canines (take place of temporary canines) ..	10 to 12 years
4 second molars	12 to 13 years
4 wisdom teeth	17 to 25 years

THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

The nervous system, including the brain, the spinal cord, and the sense organs such as the eye and ear, grows very rapidly up to six years, and very little thereafter. At birth the brain is one-half as large as it ever will be, and so rapid is its growth in the next few years that by the age of five or six the brain is almost as large as at maturity.

We are born with the brain cells that we shall have throughout life. While other cells are being constantly

renewed, new ones taking the place of old with great rapidity — in the case of red blood cells as often as every month — the same cells are always present in the brain. Brain development means not new cells but new connections made between the old brain cells, as the individual grows older.

THE REPRODUCTIVE SYSTEM

The reproductive system shows a type of growth very different from that of the nervous system. From a period of very little growth in early and middle childhood there is a shift in later childhood and adolescence to very rapid growth that speedily brings the genital organs up to adult size. This growth of the genital organs indicates that sexual maturation is going on.

About a third of all American girls mature during the thirteenth year, according to the findings of many observers. A slightly smaller proportion mature during the fourteenth year, so that the average time for the appearance of menstruation would appear to be at about thirteen years, nine and a half months. Menstruation has been noted in rare cases before the tenth year, and occasionally its first occurrence is as late as eighteen years.

There is some evidence that maturity appears somewhat later in boys than in girls, and that there is a wider variation among boys in the age at which sexual maturity is reached. There is in the case of the boy no specific physical function, such as the appearance of menstruation in the case of the girl, to declare the establishment of maturity. From other physiological data, chiefly studies on bone growth, there is evidence that boys are at least a year, possibly two years, behind girls in general development.

The outward criteria by which the appearance of puberty is noted in girls are: the changes in form due to



*"Oh, say, can you see!" The junior high school age
shows great variation in size.*

from *All the Children*, 37th Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, City of New York.



Leg, back, and arm muscles all get a chance on the swing.

Reproduced by courtesy of the *Minneapolis Star-Journal*.

the enlargement of the breasts, the appearance of pubic and axillary hair, the broadening of the pelvis, the appearance of subcutaneous fat, which softens bony angles to curves, and finally, the appearance of menstruation.

The secondary signs of sex maturity are, in the case of the boy, the pigmentation and kinking of the pubic hair, the appearance of hair on the face and under the arms, the change of voice, and the enlargement of the external sex organs.

The work of both Baldwin and Terman with superior children has shown that bright, well-developed children tend to mature slightly earlier than more ordinary children. It has been shown that children of well-to-do parents, living in a superior environment, mature slightly earlier than do those who come from meager, poverty-stricken surroundings. The tall, large, heavy children in a group are more apt to be matured than the small ones of the same age.

DUCTLESS GLANDS

Many workers think that individuals who present decidedly abnormal physical development are suffering from the results of abnormal functioning of the glands of internal secretion, or ductless glands, so-called because they secrete directly into the blood stream. Among them are the thymus, which decreases in size from birth on, until its disappearance in adolescence, the adrenals, the pituitary, the thyroid, and the glands of reproduction—the ovaries and the testes.

As the thyroid is the gland of internal secretion about which most is definitely known, it is chosen to illustrate the influence of glands on development. Undersecretion or oversecretion has long been known to affect growth and development, not alone of body but of mind. In cases where the gland undersecreted, there is a tendency toward loss of vitality and energy, the child is over-

weight, and is heavy and slow in mind as well as in body. If the gland oversecreted, there is likely to be loss of weight, an inordinate appetite, and an excessive amount of activity.

If a deficiency of the secretion of this gland is detected early, the child may, by means of a thyroid preparation given under the advice of a competent physician, be saved from mental deterioration. Sometimes the thyroid atrophies after adolescence is under way, leading to the appearance of many of the same symptoms which are present in the young child—unusual overweight, loss of vitality and eagerness, a heaviness and slowness of mind and body which bespeak a decrease in sensitiveness, as well as the common signs like dry thick skin, thin stiff hair, and protuberant abdomen. The child who suffers from thyroid deficiency must have treatments that continue regularly until growth is established, and usually throughout life.

As scientific knowledge increases, it becomes more and more evident that the glands of internal secretion function as a system rather than as separate and distinct entities; that is, interference with the functioning of any one of them affects the working of the other parts of the system. However, the relationship between them is not clearly understood. At the present time much scientific investigation is being made in the hope of furthering our specific knowledge of the functions of the ductless glands.

VARIATIONS IN GROWTH

Although in general we may say that as the individual grows older he grows less and less rapidly, nevertheless there are periods of variation. For instance, there are seasonal variations in growth which apply more to height than to weight. Children grow fastest in the late

spring and early summer. This was first noted in Denmark and thought to be connected with the school year, but it has since been noted in a large number of places. The reasons for seasonal variations in growth have not yet been definitely determined. It is probable that diet, sunlight or its lack, and temperature, all of which influence the amount and severity of disease in children, are some of the many factors that now encourage, now hinder, growth. Children from superior homes show less tendency to such seasonal variations.

A daily cycle of growth also makes itself evident. Children (adults as well) lose height during the day and regain it at night. The loss in height is due to the fact that during the day, because of the settling of the plastic material between the spinal rings, the body presses down the spine and consequently becomes shorter. A gradual recovery takes place at night, there being over one-half inch daily variation in this respect. In order to have constant conditions, measurements of children are usually taken in the morning.

Gain in weight is made during the day, with a slight loss at night. This is accounted for by the fact that there is no food intake during the night, and that there is a loss of water through the skin and lungs. This is especially true of young children, whose skin surface we have seen to be two or three times greater in proportion to body weight than that of adults.

Measurements of weight and height should be taken at the same time of day.

SEX DIFFERENCES

There are certain sex differences in rates of growth. Although boys are heavier at birth than girls, girls are further advanced physiologically at birth. Boys continue to be bigger than girls up to about the tenth year,

when the order is reversed for about five years. Girls, however, develop faster on the whole than boys; their teeth appear somewhat earlier, their bodily organs mature earlier. At birth girls are one month older than boys, as far as anatomical development is concerned, and at twelve years they are two years older. This difference continues up to where growth stops for both sexes, at about eighteen for girls and twenty for boys.

CONCLUSION

Many of us look upon age expressed in terms of years and months after birth as representing the true status of the individual. But the more we study growth, the more we realize that there are wide differences between individuals. Some children are more mature physiologically at ten than others are at twelve. Since this is true, we should regulate our program for the child by the state of his development. Age is as poor a measure of mental as of physical development, as we shall see later. Some workers raise the question whether girls should not enter school a little in advance of boys of the same age, since girls seem to be more advanced both physically and mentally. Our survey of growth shows us the importance of studying the individual child and considering all the factors which affect his well-being.

QUESTIONS

1. What percentage of variation above and below average height or weight is regarded as necessitating careful scrutiny of the child?
2. Why should measurements of height and weight be taken at the same time of day?
3. Paul, thirteen, is a year older than his sister Rhoda, but she is bigger than he, and the family teases him about it. How might one set his mind at ease?
4. Some of Helen's baby teeth are in bad condition, but the dentist wants to fill them instead of pulling them. Why should his suggestion be heeded?

5. Twelve-year-old Molly is so much overweight that she would like to diet in order to appear less conspicuous. What would you suggest as substitute plans?
6. Mary, twelve years old, large for her age, is very listless and lazy, according to her mother. All she thinks of is reading or getting away from home, though she formerly did her share in the household with no complaint. What might lie at the back of this conduct?

Chapter 3

GENERAL CARE, INCLUDING DIET AND CLOTHING

CHARACTERISTICS OF A HEALTHY CHILD

A healthy child is first of all the proper weight for his age and height. He has a clear, healthy skin with firm, resilient flesh underneath. While the muscles are not so hard as are those of an adult, they are firm and elastic, not soft and flabby. The eyes are clear and bright, the hair shining, the teeth well formed and well enameled. The healthy child has a good appetite and goes to sleep easily if the situation in which he is placed is favorable. The posture of the child is a most important indication. He should sit, stand, and walk erect, and move easily and quickly. Although there is some difference in the amount of activity in individual children, the normal child is a creature of much energy and is almost always active. He is eager and curious, anxious to explore and experiment, neither fretful nor bored, provided his surroundings come anywhere near meeting his needs. Children are by nature cheerful and ambitious, ready to attack each new day with delight. The well child is ordinarily neither irritable nor whiny, listless nor uneasy, unless fatigued.

With a normal, healthy child in mind, we may well undertake the study of some of the conditions causing a child to deviate from this picture. The conditions under which he lives, the food he eats, his clothing and its effect on his activity, the care that is taken to prevent his being subjected to undue strain, are some of the factors that affect his health and growth.

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF THE HOME

The actual living conditions of young children, the country over, are probably not conducive to their best health. We know, for instance, that many children live in overheated, poorly ventilated rooms under conditions likely to spread infection and disease. Good ventilation requires that the air in the house shall be kept in gentle, if imperceptible, motion; that it shall be warmed or cooled to a comfortable temperature, and shall have the proper degree of humidity.

One of the factors that bear most directly on a child's health, whether in the city or the country, is the sleeping arrangement. Parents should occupy a room separate from that of the children, the sexes should be separated after the earliest years, and each individual should have his own bed.

Windows should be arranged so that there is cross-ventilation of sleeping rooms. Bedclothing should be sufficient, so that the windows may be open in all but the coldest weather. It is not necessary that bedrooms be heated in any but the coldest weather if the night garments and coverings are adapted to the temperature. If warm sleeping bags are provided, it is impossible for young children to kick the covers off.

ACTIVITY AND PLAY

Adequate provision should be made for both outdoor and indoor play. Except in the coldest weather or during storms, children should play as much as possible out of doors. Sunlight, air, and exercise are great preventive agents.

It is possible to make outdoor play attractive in cold weather by providing things for children to play with and by making the effort to get out with them.

Children should have a porch, yard, barn loft, or play-room in which they can play in very cold weather and

on rainy days. If a mother cannot make other arrangements which adequately meet the play needs of her children, she must be prepared to sacrifice something in the way of orderliness and precision of the living rooms during this time. This should not be interpreted as an encouragement to roughness and destructiveness in children. Their energy can be directed toward building up good habits if play conditions meet their needs.

CLOTHING

The clothing of children is of importance to their health and activity.

Materials should be bought chiefly with a view to their washableness and durability. Cotton has been found, under intensive study, to make the best underclothing, both for babies and children. Linen, silk, and wool all have certain advantages, but cotton combines the most advantages, as it withstands the boiling so necessary to cleanliness and is less irritating to the skin than wool.

Wool should be used for the outer garments rather than for underwear. Sudden changes of weather, or of temperature in the house, may more readily be provided against by the addition or removal of a sweater or leggings than by change of underwear.

A significant feature of a child's clothing, to which little thought has been given, is the matter of simplicity. Beginning as early as two years of age a child passes through a time of great eagerness to do for himself. If this period is taken advantage of and his clothing made simple enough for him to put on and off, a long struggle during the period of learning to dress is averted. Avoidance of all complicated fastenings and clothes that button in the back helps a child to learn to do for himself. The convenient zipper fastener is used to advantage by many mothers who make their children's clothes. Laying

the clothes out piece by piece in regular order, so that the same sequence is followed every day, helps a child greatly in making the habit automatic and prevents in some degree the dawdling and slow dressing which often result from lack of systematic habit.

Another essential feature in clothing is sufficient size. A child should not be hampered by being cramped and squeezed. This is particularly applicable to outdoor clothing, as active play is impossible in tight or confining garments. Clothes that are loose fitting, without being clumsy and cumbersome, also conserve the body warmth better. Tailored coats of heavy material are less desirable than a combination of a warm sweater and a light coat. A child must be lightly, but sufficiently warmly, clothed. Resistance to cold and disease is often lowered by a chilling of the whole body, due to insufficient clothing. Frequent change of clothing is of far greater importance than the dainty or delicate appearance of the clothes. The mother who sent her little boy to kindergarten with a newspaper on which to sit, to avoid soiling his clothes, is an example of caution so marked as to be dangerous to a child's interests.

PHYSICAL HABITS

The daily bath, which has been the custom in babyhood, should be continued throughout this period, wherever possible. The genitals should be cleansed carefully and often; in boys the foreskin should be pushed back and the exposed part washed at least twice weekly. It is not to be expected that a young child can remember health matters, such as brushing the teeth, washing before meals, attending to bowel movements, and other necessary habits, without supervision. He should be encouraged to do for himself but needs the help and guidance of the mother in establishing these acts as habits. In all early learning much depends on the attitude of

the mother in establishing a positive, successful habit in the child. If she is good-naturedly expectant and patient, she can count on the child's cooperation in necessary routine to a far greater extent than if she is nagging and urgent.

NUTRITION

A child's development depends in large part on his nutrition. Without adequate food, rest, air, clothing, and happy surroundings, a child cannot grow well. He may appear round and fat and still be malnourished. His fat may be flabby, his tissues may contain an excess of water, he may not be gaining, or he may lack resistance to the ailments to which childhood is subject. The face of a child may look plump, owing to the particular cast of his features; but when he is stripped, noticeable depressions may appear between the ribs, or other indications may mark him as poorly nourished.

It is by no means always the children of the poor who are ill-nourished. A large proportion of the cases of malnourishment are found among the well-to-do. For nutrition depends not on what a child eats but on what he digests and assimilates. A thoughtful mother on a low food budget may provide meals that keep her children in better condition than those of the family whose diet, although rich and varied, is poorly planned. In many homes the mistake is made of including too high a proportion of fats and sweet foods, and overbalancing the diet with elements of which the child needs only a small amount.

MALNUTRITION

Malnutrition may be the result of one or more of many causes, some of which pertain to feeding, such as:

Lack of sufficient quantity of food.

Improper food or poorly balanced diet.

Poor assimilation, when food elements are not absorbed into blood and tissue as they should be.

Disturbances of digestion due to

- a. Poor teeth, resulting in little chewing
- b. Hasty eating
- c. Excitement or anger at mealtime.

Irregular feeding. One heavy meal may not make up for loss at another.

Aside from these, other causes not so obvious may play an important part, such as:

Unfortunate living conditions.

Habitual nervousness, worry, or unhappiness.

Habitual overexcitement and overstimulation, anger, or fear.

Lack of sufficient rest.

Malnutrition in a young child has far-reaching results. Not only is his resistance to disease decidedly lessened, but his growth and bodily development in general are slowed up. From various studies the indications are that there are two million children in the United States suffering from malnutrition. These figures do not include the milder types of malnourishment, but only those cases where it is present to a marked degree.

RICKETS

One of the commonest malnutritive conditions among young children is that known as rickets. Its presence is an indication of lack in a child's diet of vitamin D, which is supplied in adequate amounts by only a few foods, such as egg yolks and fish-liver oils. Direct exposure of the skin to the rays of the sun or to other sources of ultraviolet light produces this vitamin in the body itself. During the winter months some substitute for the benefits of the sun should be provided. Cod-liver oil is recognized as the best means of supplying the elements naturally furnished by sunlight. So much have we come to depend on cod-liver oil when sunlight cannot be had, that in most parts of the civilized world regular doses of it

are part of the routine procedure, during the winter months, for every baby attending the infant stations.

We are all familiar with the pictures from hospitals for tubercular children showing frail children romping in the snow with scarcely anything on, yet we often neglect the giving of sun baths even in summer, when it involves no exertion whatever. Care must of course be used to expose the child's skin gradually when sun baths are begun, so that sunburn will not result.

The evidence of rickets is given by soft bones, which presently begin to be out of shape on account of certain lacks in their substance. Pigeon breast, bowlegs, bony wrists, are all indicative of severe rickets. Curves in the spine are often traceable to rickets. When posture is definitely affected in this way, the internal organs are pushed out of place and become less and less able to function naturally. The deformity of the pelvis in girls if extremely severe may later interfere with normal delivery in childbirth. Often these defects do not show up until the lack has persisted over a period of time. Frequent examinations of the baby by a physician will disclose slight symptoms, such as head sweating or poor muscle tone. Early diagnosis simplifies correction.

FEEDING AN INFANT

The best procedure in baby care requires breast feeding. No other food has been found to combine quite so well the elements necessary to the baby's growth at this time. In four years, from 1915 to 1919, the infant mortality rate of the United States was decreased 10 per cent, owing largely to the establishment of infant welfare stations and the spread of information as to proper feeding of infants. Breast feeding is possible in many cases where it is discontinued without sufficient trial. Expression of milk from the breast, for example, is often successful in increasing the supply of milk. So much greater

is the baby's safety while at the breast that if the weaning period falls during hot weather or during an illness the mother is encouraged to prolong the nursing.

After five or six months, however, babies need additional food. Cereal is the first solid food, though orange or tomato juice is usually begun in the third or fourth week of life. Vegetables are added, mashed, strained, or in soups at about the seventh month. The baby should at this time be taught to drink from a cup and be given hard crusts of bread or toast to chew on.

TRANSITION TO SOLID FOOD

In considering the transition from breast feeding to a balanced diet we must take note of what a child's food must do. There are four fundamental factors to be taken into account in estimating the food requirements. These are the requirements for keeping the energy of the body at par, the needs for growth, the needs for muscular activity, and finally the food values lost in the excreta. On account of his greater needs as a growing organism, the amount of food needed by a child is greater in proportion to his size than that for an adult.

The character of his food differs from that of an adult also. He needs more liquid food (owing to the greater water content of his body) and he needs more growth food. Minerals and vitamins are a vital part of a child's diet, in laying down material for his teeth, bones, and other tissues.

The transition from a special diet to a general one should be made by the second year. The elements that should be included in the daily meals are carbohydrates, fats, proteins, minerals, vitamins, and water.

FOOD ELEMENTS NECESSARY TO GROWTH

1. CARBOHYDRATES (starches and sugar) such as those found in bread, cereals, rice, and potatoes, comprise the

largest item in a young child's diet. They give energy, and besides acting as fuel, may be stored as fats. Starchy foods for children must be well cooked, for cooking helps the process of breaking up the food into its essential elements, which digestion further frees for their use in the body.

2. FATS furnish a stored-up reserve of fuel for the body. Not more than 35 per cent of a child's food should be of fats, and these should be easily digested ones such as milk, yolk of egg, and butter. The vegetable and nut oils are likewise easily digested. These uncooked fats are desirable also because of their energy value. Contrary to a somewhat general opinion fats are not laxative, but tend to be constipative. Because of its greater digestibility when uncooked, fat should be added to children's food after cooking. *Foods cooked in fat should ordinarily not be included in the diet of young children.*

3. PROTEINS should furnish 10 to 15 per cent of the total number of calories in the diet. Milk, eggs, meat, and fish (or animal protein) are the desirable proteins for children. Grains, peas, and beans furnish protein but do not supply the mineral element with which protein is combined in milk and are harder to digest. Experiments carried out with young animals show that there is superior growth when the protein is of animal rather than vegetable origin. Vegetable proteins can be used in childhood only to *supplement* the animal proteins found in meat, eggs, and milk. A child obviously needs a much greater amount of protein, proportionately, than an adult, for it is on this element he must depend in large part for the growth of tissue and the replacing of worn tissue. As the protein of milk is most easily digested, it is most useful to babies. Between the ages of one and two the protein in lean meats and fish should be included in the diet.

4. **MINERAL SALTS** such as iron, calcium (lime), phosphorus, and iodine are essential. The baby is born with a supply of iron in his liver which lasts about six months. This is a valuable provision, since his first food, milk, whether it be mother's or cow's, has a very small content of iron. From this fact we see the importance of adding some food rich in iron at the end of six months. Spinach supplies this in the most available form, other vegetables and the yolk of eggs also offering a large amount. By far the most valuable source of calcium is milk, although vegetables and whole grain cereals yield a sufficient amount to be important. The needs for such minerals as aid in bone production is well recognized. The balance between calcium and phosphorus in the diet is an important factor in preventing rickets. There is a small amount of iodine in cod-liver oil. In some regions the small amount of iodine in the food makes it necessary to add iodine to the drinking water or to the table salt.

5. **VITAMINS.** Substances known as vitamins have recently been found in minute quantities in foods. They are essential to growth, increase resistance to disease, and promote health and vigor. If whole milk, fruits, especially orange or tomato juice, green vegetables, butter, and cod-liver oil are included in the child's daily diet in sufficient quantities, the necessary vitamins will be supplied.

6. **WATER** is an essential element in the digestive process. Most of the waste materials are carried away in a fluid state. Water forms a part of body tissues and of fluids such as blood and gastric juice. All metabolic and assimilative processes take place in fluids.

The foods in which these different elements may be found and which should be included in the child's diet each day are:

MILK: 1 pint whole milk daily, more if no meat or egg is used. Milk for a child under two years to drink should be boiled two minutes.

BREAD: Wheat bread, a day old (preferably whole wheat).

CEREALS: To be cooked at least two hours, especially coarse ones. Oatmeal, rice, farina, whole grain cereals, rolled rye, barley, or oats.

FRUITS: Apples, stewed or baked. Dried prunes, apricots, peaches, etc. Oranges, canned fruit (stewed with little sugar).

VEGETABLES: Spinach, carrots, cauliflower, string beans, asparagus, tomatoes, peas. Well-cleaned fresh lettuce and cabbage may be given the child as soon as he is old enough to masticate thoroughly.

MEATS: Fresh lean beef, lamb, chicken, halibut or whitefish, bacon (no salt or cured meats except bacon).

DESSERTS: Tapioca, gelatine desserts, custards (unless egg has already been given), blanc mange, rice, or bread pudding, plain cookies.

WATER: Plentifully, both with and between meals. A child should be encouraged to chew his food well, and not wash it down with either milk or water.

To this list should be added, for all children under six years of age, one teaspoonful of cod-liver oil daily during the winter months. Lack of sunshine is one factor in causing rickets. To offset this, cod-liver oil is given on account of the large amount of antirachitic vitamins which it contains.

Many mothers make themselves unnecessary labor by adhering too closely to specific menus for young children, when adaptations of the family meal could be made. If, for example, the adults are to have apple pie for dessert, a few more apples may be baked or stewed for the children. On occasions when it is inconvenient to cook cereal, toasted whole wheat bread broken up in milk may be given as a substitute. A poached or soft-boiled egg or a piece of bacon may always be substituted for ham and other meats not suitable for children. When vegetables are prepared with rich and highly seasoned sauces, such as lettuce, beet greens, or spinach served with vinegar dressing, a little may first be removed and butter added

for the children. Raw cabbage and carrot, celery or lettuce, ground or cut up fine and given in a sandwich makes the green vegetable attractive to children. If the adults wish to indulge in a meal of corned beef and cabbage, it may be preceded the day before by a meal of fish and vegetables. The fish and vegetables left over may be warmed for the child and served with a sandwich containing the fresh ground cabbage. Add milk and a fruit dessert, and the child has an excellent meal with very little additional labor.

Simple menus are to be found in the pamphlets suggested as references at the close of this chapter.

CARE OF EYE AND EAR

We have seen in a previous chapter that a child's sense organs are completely developed at birth. Our obvious duty is to see that these delicate organs are not subjected to any strain but are kept in such condition that they may function properly. In Minnesota, both in city and country, 30 per cent of the children have eye trouble—about the same percentage as in New York and in Massachusetts. It is, we see, a far more frequent defect than is popularly supposed. Defects of this sort commonly go undiscovered until the child has been several years in school. The alert parent will see the desirability of having his children's eyes examined before they reach school age. Strain of any type should be prevented. Children should be protected from strong light; care should be taken to avoid overstrain from too prolonged attention to any work such as sewing, bead stringing, reading, or looking at moving pictures.

Unexplained headaches, indigestion, dizziness, irritability or "nervousness," and sensitiveness to light are often a warning that a child's system is under strain from his eyes.

Because the eye is changing and developing through-

out childhood, children who wear glasses should have their eyes examined yearly to see if change or correction is needed.

The examination of hearing is another detail often neglected in small children. Deafness, more than any other defect, results in making the child appear stupid. Many who are thought to be dullards are discovered to be normal children handicapped by poor hearing. In an examination of about five thousand children under seven years of age, 9.4 per cent were found to have some ear defect. Not only early, but expert, examination of children's hearing is desirable.

A high proportion of cases of deafness originate in the nose and throat troubles so common among little children. Diseased tonsils and adenoids, what we call colds, and the acute infectious diseases of childhood are responsible for most of the deafness that impairs the usefulness and happiness of adults. A child should be watched with especial care during and after such diseases as scarlet fever, measles, and diphtheria, because the transfer of disease germs from throat to ear is very easy in childhood, when the Eustachian canal is wider and straighter than in adulthood. Inflammation set up in this way often leads to mastoid complications, and deafness in later years. An earache is so often a sign of inflammation of the ear that it should never be neglected.

CARE OF NOSE AND THROAT

Tonsils and adenoids, probably more than any other parts of the body, become defective in children; more than one-half of the preschool children examined show defects of this sort. Adenoids are accountable for about one-third of all the nasal trouble. Mouth breathing is the most noticeable symptom. High-arched palate and imperfect closing of the teeth and jaws may be present. Enlarged and defective tonsils are found in about one-

half of all children at early ages. The throat of a little child is small; consequently enlarged tonsils cause him more difficulty than they would later on when his throat itself is becoming larger. If the tonsils do not become diseased in early life, they decrease in size thereafter. Although it has been thought that climate accounted for the great amount of nose and throat defects in some parts of the country, recent studies have shown that tonsil and adenoid trouble is as prevalent among California children as among those in Minnesota.

Neglect of nose and throat conditions sometimes has far-reaching effects. The heart defects and rheumatism which follow diseased, neglected tonsils cannot always be remedied.

Only by an appreciation of the fact that, with such a high percentage of tonsil and adenoid defects, our own children are likely to be among those affected, can there be any widespread change in the practice which allows children to enter upon their first school years hampered with remediable defects. Children with nose and throat trouble have been observed to be less efficient in school as compared with children free from these defects.

TEETH

There is a notion prevalent that our teeth are degenerating. This is probably without any foundation. The majority of skulls examined of men who lived only two hundred years ago show almost perfect teeth at middle age. It is not at all likely that degeneration of one of our organs would take place so rapidly.

Breast-fed babies do not have as many illnesses as do artificially-fed babies. Because illness has a direct effect on the soundness of the teeth, a breast-fed baby stands a better chance of having good teeth.

Although much can be done in the way of safeguarding children's teeth, it must be done early. We have

seen how a mother's diet during pregnancy and breast feeding affects the formation of the first teeth. The years before six, when the permanent teeth begin to erupt, are the years for building sound teeth. Without plenty of milk and other calcium- and phosphorus-supplying foods, such as whole grain cereals and green, leafy vegetables, the child will be ill equipped. The teeth of the child whose diet lacks in this respect will show many defects by the time he is twenty.

Much trouble results from the erroneous belief that the sixth year molars are not permanent teeth. These teeth, sixth in order counting from the center of either jaw, are present in the jaw from birth, and need great care if they are to perform their function of acting as a lock in the jaws, keeping the other teeth to their respective positions. That carelessness in this particular is almost universal is indicated by the findings of a doctor who, on examining the sixth year molars of three thousand adults, saw only seven sets in perfect condition.

CARE OF TEETH

The care of the teeth during early years determines to great extent the character of the permanent teeth. Not only should they be brushed, but care should be taken to see that a child has plenty of hard food to chew. Semiannual visits should be made to the dentist, to make sure that the teeth show no decay. This serves also to build up a friendly feeling between a child and his dentist, which may be of great help later on.

Another detail to which we give slight attention is the effect of children's diseases on the growing teeth. When disease is present, with fever and a generally upset condition, the elements which should go into the teeth are wasted in the excreta. Measles, diphtheria, and other diseases often leave the teeth that are form-

ing in the jaw with minute imperfections of the enamel. When these teeth erupt later, a permanent ridge is evident across the front teeth. This is another point in favor of preventing these diseases as long as possible, contrary to the once common idea of "getting them over."

POSTURE

While posture is one of the best indications of a child's general health, faulty posture is not always due to rickets. In some cases it is due to fatigue, in others to malnutrition. Posture is especially easily influenced in childhood, while the tissues are soft and easily molded. Nutritional deficiencies, lack of sufficient rest and sleep, lack of exercise in the open air, and improper ventilation affect posture.

The feet play an important part in posture. Poorly chosen shoes and ill-fitting or tight shoes may seriously affect a child's later ease and grace of carriage. Shoes should be wide, low, and pliable. Many children acquire poor posture through improper placing of their feet in walking. The feet should be placed nearly in front of one another almost on a straight line. The walker should not toe in or out. Much of the backache and faulty posture of previous generations was due to an emphasis on toeing out in teaching children to walk.

GENERAL PRECAUTIONS

Our aim is to increase a child's resistance, which is low in his early years. Of paramount importance in building up his power to throw off disease and infection is the regular health examination. Every six months, at least, every child under the school age should be gone over carefully by a family physician or the doctor in the traveling clinic. The doctor's eye may detect those slight defects which, if uncorrected, develop alarmingly. The Gary study of more than four thousand children

shows that at two years 15.1 per cent of children are free from physical defect, but by the time the children reach the age of six, all but 0.3 per cent will have some defect. This shocking proportion can be cut down by frequent and careful examinations.

In general, then, these are the precautions that we must have in mind in planning the routine of a young child. His first needs are good food and sleep, plenty of fresh air and sunlight, and a happy, carefree home, where his interests and needs are considered as well as those of the adult. He must be helped to build up wholesome physical habits.

The happiness that contributes to a child's general well-being is something that parents can foster or not as they choose. Grief, anxiety, sorrow, worry, or pain, all these are as harmful as any of the diseases or risks from which we shield our children so carefully. A calm, placid atmosphere will have much to do with building up a child's physical as well as his mental health.

QUESTIONS

1. Shirley Anne is up to weight for her age and size, but she never has any color in her cheeks. Suggest reasons and remedies.
2. Give two reasons why rickets is more prevalent in winter than in summer.
3. Make out a day's menu for a child of four, including foods from all five food groups.
4. A girl of thirteen must give up either the swimming team, Girl Scout work, basketball, or music lessons for lack of time. Discuss reasons in favor of retaining or discarding each.

Chapter 4

CHILDREN'S DISEASES

Safeguarding their children's health is one of the major interests of intelligent parents, but how best to go about the problem is a matter for careful study.

The dangers of those diseases that from the frequency and persistence of their attacks upon childhood have come to be called children's diseases are well known. For example, four times as many babies die of whooping cough in the first year as in the second year. In the case of measles, the chances of a child's dying of it are four times as great in his first year of life as in his fifth. Among those children who do not die of the infectious diseases, irreparable harm may follow, in the way of affections of the heart, chronic ear trouble with resulting deafness, chronic infections of the respiratory tract, such as chronic sinusitis or bronchitis.

IMMUNITY

Immunity to disease may be natural or acquired. Natural immunity is the infection-resisting power with which the individual is born. Certain races may have developed greater natural immunity than others.

In general, fatigue, chronic disorder of nose and throat, the presence of one infectious disease, all increase the individual's susceptibility to disease. The newborn and nursing baby has some immunity to diseases such as measles and diphtheria, probably acquired from the mother. This wears off during the first year.

Immunity to disease may be acquired in various ways: (1) by having the disease, (2) by the gradual resistance that is built up as a result of many contacts with the germ or its toxin in insufficient amounts to cause the disease itself, and (3) by protective inocula-

tion. A striking illustration of the possibility of the second type of immunity "is the progressive increase in the number of school children who have never had diphtheria, and whose negative Schick tests indicate acquired immunity to the disease. This increase in number of negative Schick tests is also more marked in school districts with a high incidence of diphtheria. This suggests that" the result of these many contacts was a gradually acquired resistance to the disease. The greater immunity of older children who have not had the disease is the result of contacts with the germ in insufficient amounts to cause the disease, but sufficient to build immunity.

These factors introduce a practical dilemma in the protection of children from the dangers of these diseases. We do not like to expose our children to undue risk of death or chronic disability. But if we overprotect them in childhood, they may in adult life retain their childhood susceptibility. Better than either isolation from disease or exposure is to give the child immunity without risk of acquiring the disease. Today this can be done for diphtheria and smallpox by preventive inoculation. The procedure will be discussed in the description of each disease.

In general, robust and healthy children do not seem to be so severely affected by illness as tired or delicate children. While the whole subject is very complicated and scientists do not know the exact relationships, it appears that one way by which parents can help to increase the resistance of their children to disease is by following the suggestions in the last chapter with reference to general health, and that another way is by the use of preventive inoculations for the diseases for which they are available.

TYPES OF INFECTIOUS DISEASE

The infectious diseases most common to childhood

include the eruptive fevers (scarlet fever, measles, German measles, chickenpox, smallpox), whooping cough, mumps, diphtheria, infantile paralysis, and the common cold.

All these diseases are the result of disease germs entering the nose or mouth. *They are spread by contact with persons suffering from the disease or by contact with carriers, that is, well persons with germs of the disease in their noses and throats.*

COMMON SYMPTOMS OF CHILDREN'S DISEASES

The most common general symptoms of any acute infectious disease are fatigue, irritability, listlessness or drowsiness, fever, sore throat, loss of appetite, vomiting, or, in a few cases, convulsions. The distinctive symptoms and signs of each infectious disease will be discussed in the description of each disease.

The three diseases, the common cold, grippe, and influenza, frequently grouped together as the nonspecific, respiratory tract infections, begin in the same way as do the acute infectious diseases. Like the infectious diseases they may be followed by serious complications, such as chronic sinusitis, chronic running ear, chronic tonsilitis, mastoiditis, bronchitis, and pneumonia.

As far as is known, colds are spread by human contact only. Drafts, insufficient clothing, wet feet, and overheating seem to lower the child's resistance to the germs that he constantly harbors in his nose and throat.

The general rules for the prevention of the spread of colds apply in the case of any infectious disease. Never using another's handkerchief, covering the nose and mouth when coughing or sneezing, and avoiding all contact with persons suffering from colds or grippe are precautions to be taught every child.

It is important for mothers to recognize the possibility of an infectious disease in *any acute illness*. Unless a

mother is on the alert, the disease is passed on to others during the very early stages, which are highly infectious. For this reason it is necessary to isolate a child whenever he has a cold, a fever, or is vomiting.

THE CARE OF THE SICK CHILD

The child who is "not himself" is easily recognized by an understanding mother. When a child feels tired, has a running nose or eyes, complains of pain, is irritable or feverish, the place for that child is in bed, in a quiet room, away from other children. Rest in bed is the best treatment for any illness, mild or severe. If the illness is mild and short, a rest will help it to pass off. If it is serious, rest in bed is essential. For the child who uses imaginary illness as an excuse, an enforced rest is often a good cure.

There is a common idea that vomiting is always due to something the child has eaten. As a matter of fact it is one of the commonest symptoms of the onset of an acute infection, without regard to what the child has eaten. A good general rule for feeding a child who has vomited is to let him have any part of his regular diet he desires when his appetite returns. If a sick child refuses food do not urge him. The one concern is to see that he gets enough fluid, which is at least one quart a day. As a rule, ill children take either plain water or fruit juices with sugar added better than they take milk. If the child objects to taking water from a cup, the full quart of fluid can be given by giving frequently several teaspoonfuls of water or cracked ice with a little fruit juice added. If the child cannot eat, it is especially advantageous for him to have sweet beverages, as the sugar is productive of energy.

It is a great help if the mother knows how to take the child's temperature. She should notify her doctor of the presence of fever above one hundred degrees com-

bined with other of the above-named symptoms. With young babies it is easier to take the temperature at the rectum, but it should be remembered that the rectal temperature is normally a degree higher than the temperature of the mouth.

The isolation of a slightly sick child is a difficult thing, particularly when the mother has all the family duties on her hands. But in reality the busy mother is the one who profits most by isolating a child promptly, because in so many instances the illness does turn out to be contagious, and one ill child is all the mother can handle. One slightly ill child taxes the mother's ingenuity to provide entertainment, but it is asking too much to expect a half-sick child to lie abed with nothing to do. Materials for quiet play should be provided, such as colored paper, scissors, paste, crayons, paper dolls, books, puzzles, or favorite toys saved for such occasions.

Many a mother is tempted to let her child get up and run about before it is safe for him to do so, because it is so very hard to keep a convalescent child in bed. But if the doctor's orders as to the length of time the child must stay in bed are observed, recovery may be more than proportionately hastened.

Of course a sick child's mother cannot be with him all the time, nor would it be desirable for him to become dependent on her. Occupations can be provided that will keep children absorbed and happy for long stretches without unduly taxing them. For example, pictures hung on a screen or at the foot of the bed may be changed often, so that there is something new to look at. Old magazines can be used in a number of ways—an older child likes to clip and send away coupons, a younger one enjoys cutting out the pictures, coloring those that are in black and white, making a scrapbook, or using the fashion plates for paper dolls. Puzzles are good if

they are simple enough not to require intensive concentration. Crayons, paints, plasticene, and plastic wood can be kept from becoming too messy if an old sheet or piece of oilcloth is spread over the bed. Little children love to deck themselves out in mother's discarded beads and bracelets, to re-string beads, or make varicolored ones of salt and flour paste. The family button box provides fun for an imaginative child. A mail-order catalogue lends itself to any number of schemes.

If a child's bed can be placed near a window, the passing cars and people make him feel less alone. Sometimes moving a child for part of the day to another room than the one he has become tired of will cheer him up. Company, in the person of goldfish, a canary, or a new stuffed animal, will make him feel less lonely.

A convalescent child should be carefully guarded from overexcitement, consequently the use of the radio must be closely watched and the type of program controlled. A phonograph has the advantage that, once suitable records have been chosen by the mother, the child can play them at will. A harmonica, castanets, bells, and other simple musical instruments give a child the fun of producing his own music.

Many an older child has learned to knit or crochet while in bed, and has whiled away hours making something for her doll. An older boy may find pleasure in making a model airplane, in sorting and labeling a collection he has made, or in pasting the snapshots reminiscent of a summer outing into a scrapbook.

For work of this kind, some sort of table is necessary. The lid of an old-fashioned drophead sewing machine, pushed up close to the bed, makes an acceptable one, while a box or crate, with sides cut out to fit over the child's legs, does very well for a child who doesn't jerk about much.

There are times when playthings pall, and a quiet

game is in order. Even quite small children enjoy playing with mother or an older child the old rhyming game that goes "I see something that rhymes with . . ." In guessing "Is it . . . ? or . . . ?" a child's vocabulary is constantly being added to, and much interesting conversation is provoked. "Teakettle" and "The Minister's Cat" are other old favorites that still please little children.

It is a good idea to have rest periods, when the room is darkened and everything is quiet, at fairly frequent intervals, in the interest of preventing overstimulation and fatigue.

In the following suggestive descriptions of the onset of acute infectious disease, no attempt has been made to picture the course of the disease, its care and treatment, or its complications. The information given is such as will help the parent to recognize the symptoms and indicate the importance of the disorder. *In all cases where one of these diseases is suspected, or the child presents characteristic symptoms, a physician should be called.*

INFECTIOUS DISEASES OF CHILDHOOD

DIPHTHERIA

Season: Greatest number of cases in autumn and winter.

Susceptibility: The periods of high susceptibility in children are shown by the following figures, which were compiled by the New York City Department of Health (the percentages will vary in different communities): 15 per cent under three months; 30 per cent from three to six months; 60 per cent from six to twelve months; 60 per cent from one to three years; 40 per cent from three to five years; 30 per cent from five to ten years.

Incubation period (time between exposure to disease and appearance of symptoms): Two to seven days, usually four days.

Onset: Child looks sicker than his temperature indicates. In general, symptoms of any acute infection, such as fa-

tigue, chilliness, aches and pains, refusal to eat, and slight sore throat. The child frequently does not complain of sore throat. Membrane may or may not be visible in throat.

Isolation period: Until two negative throat cultures have been taken.

Prevention and treatment: While only about one-seventh of all cases of diphtheria in the last twelve years were among children under five years old, one-third of all the deaths from diphtheria fell among children of this age. Three-fourths of adults are immune to the disease, but by far the larger number of children under five years old are susceptible.

In a recent symposium a committee of the American Public Health Association has recommended the use of toxoid, especially the alum precipitate form, for the production of immunity to diphtheria. The first recommendation is for two inoculations in infancy, one at nine months, one a month later, followed by a single inoculation upon entering school. They emphasize that since a single dose produces almost as high an incidence of immunity to diphtheria as two, it is preferable to inoculate many children with one dose rather than a few children with two. This would give greater protection to the total community. The committee feels that there are still many unsolved problems in the field of diphtheria prevention, so its recommendations are tentative.

SCARLET FEVER

Season: Most cases in winter.

Susceptibility: Recent studies, using the Dick test, which is similar to the Schick test for diphtheria, place the highest incidence of susceptibility at one year. Half the cases occur between the third and eighth year.

Incubation period: Two to nine days, usually three or four days.

Onset: Abrupt, with vomiting, high fever, sore throat. The time before the rash occurs is highly infectious. Character of rash: The diffuse, red, pin-point rash, which feels velvety, appears within twelve to thirty-six hours, first on the chest and neck, or inner surfaces of the arms, then usually spreads over most of the body, except the face.

Isolation period: Three to six weeks.

Prevention and specific treatment: An antitoxin for treatment and a toxin-antitoxin for prevention have been devel-

oped. About ten years of study have failed to answer the question as to whether they are of value for anything more than curing or preventing the rash. For example, a child known to be immune to the toxin may develop a typical scarlet fever sore throat and its complications.

MEASLES

Season: Most cases in winter and spring.

Susceptibility: After six months, universal.

Incubation period: Ten days to two weeks.

Onset: Three days of symptoms of any acute infection, with marked running of nose and eyes. The period before the rash occurs is highly infectious. Small white pin-point spots, called Koplik spots, occur on the inside of the lips and cheek. Character of rash: The irregular, red, bumpy rash appears three or four days after the onset, first around the neck and ears, then spreads to the rest of the body.

Isolation period: Two and one-half to three weeks.

Prevention and specific treatment: A serum made from the blood of patients recovering from the disease (convalescent serum) is being used in institutions to protect children who have been exposed to measles. This seems to give complete protection for a period of two to four weeks.

GERMAN MEASLES

Season: Winter and spring.

Susceptibility: After six months, universal.

Incubation period: Ten to twenty-one days, usually fourteen.

Onset: Very mild. Symptoms of any acute infection, rash lasts a day or so. Character of rash: As in measles, the irregular, red rash appears on the face, but frequently looks more like scarlet fever, and is usually a fainter red than either measles or scarlet fever. The rash appears usually within the first day of illness, and is frequently the first sign of illness.

Isolation period: Eight to ten days.

Prevention and treatment: None.

SMALLPOX

Before vaccination, this was a disease of childhood. Today infant or school child vaccination has changed it into a disease of adults chiefly.

Season: Before vaccination—spring and fall. This disease occurs or becomes epidemic in unvaccinated communities only.

Susceptibility: Universal.

Incubation period: Nine to fifteen days, usually twelve to fourteen days.

Onset: Sudden high fever, intense pain in head, back, and limbs. Eruption on third or fourth day. Character of rash: A single crop of pustules appears on the third or fourth day, anywhere on the body.

Isolation period: Until disappearance of all crusts or scabs, usually by the fourth week.

Prevention and specific treatment: Between six months and one year every infant should be vaccinated. Revaccination should be done upon entering school, at five-year periods, and during epidemics. It is a disgrace to any community to have a single case of smallpox. Universal vaccination for one generation would wipe the disease off the face of the globe.

CHICKEN POX

Season: Spring and fall—epidemics.

Susceptibility: Universal.

Incubation period: Fourteen to twenty-one days.

Onset: Slight fever, eruption in twenty-four hours. Character of rash: Pustules appear, beginning as small, red-encircled blisters, in successive crops for three or four days, anywhere on the body. The eruption itches excessively. Removal of the scabs by scratching tends to produce scars.

Isolation: Until disappearance of scabs, about two weeks.

Prevention and specific treatment: None.

WHOOPING COUGH (PERTUSSIS)

Season: Most cases in winter and spring.

Susceptibility: Universal. Has been known to appear as early as the second week. One-half of all whooping cough cases are in the first two years of life.

Incubation period: Seven to twenty-one days, usually fourteen.

Onset: Like any mild acute infection, such as a common cold, with a cough and with or without fever. After five or six days the cough gradually increases in severity and by ten days begins to occur in paroxysms. It may be three



What a big boy am I!

Reproduced by courtesy of the *Minneapolis Star-Journal*.



If Jim gets a good grip, perhaps he can hoist himself up.

weeks before the typical whoop is recognized. Vomiting commonly follows the severe paroxysms. In a few cases children cough and vomit without whooping. The vomiting spells are characterized by an absence of nausea or loss of appetite.

Isolation period: At least six weeks, or until paroxysmal cough is gone.

Prevention and specific treatment: The value of the vaccine for whooping cough is still debatable. Because some states are now routinely advising its use for children under three years of age, it would be well to find out from your physician what his policy is.

MUMPS

Season: Any season, and epidemics.

Susceptibility: Greatest number of cases in fourth to fourteenth years. Only a small proportion of the children exposed take mumps. Infants are rarely affected.

Incubation period: Three to twenty-five days, usually fourteen days.

Onset: Pain and swelling of parotid glands, one or both sides, just below and behind the ears. Pain on chewing and swallowing.

Isolation period: One week after swelling has subsided.

Prevention and specific treatment: None.

INFANTILE PARALYSIS (ANTERIOR POLIOMYELITIS)

Season: There is a striking absence of this disease except from July to October. Epidemics of varying severity occur in Minnesota almost every fall.

Susceptibility: Largest number of cases occur in the second year of life. Eighty per cent of all cases in the first four years.

Incubation period: Two to fourteen days, usually six to eight days.

Onset: Fever, diarrhea, vomiting, drowsiness, or fretfulness, followed by paralysis of any part of the body, but more usually of the extremities. May or may not have pain in involved part. May wake up with paralysis without premonitory symptoms.

Isolation period: Six to eight weeks.

Prevention and specific treatment: No definite or effective

tive means of prevention can be formulated until we are sure of the mode of transmission.

QUESTIONS

1. Is it possible to catch a cold from sitting in a draft?
2. What symptoms necessitate isolating a child from other children?
3. List suggestions for keeping a convalescent child quietly and happily occupied in bed.
4. Donald, usually a hearty eater, refused his breakfast before going to nursery school, but otherwise seemed as usual. Should his mother allow him to go, if she mentions this fact to the teacher?
5. Mrs. Smith, aged sixty-five, is afraid to have her grandchildren immunized against diphtheria and scarlet fever. She says, "Yes, but this poison that is being put into their blood may cause them much trouble years later." How would you allay her fears?
6. Suggest a plan for arousing interest in having the children of your community immunized.
7. Why does a younger child in a family frequently fall ill with a disease, though the mother has isolated the older one as soon as it was suspected that he was ill?

Chapter 5

MENTAL GROWTH OF THE CHILD

To find out how a baby is growing in size, we weigh and measure him. To find out how his mental growth is progressing, we must watch what he does and how he acts. The more we understand about what motivates a child's behavior, the better we can guide and direct that behavior. The casual onlooker, watching a baby laboriously climbing steps, is tempted to lift him to the top. The baby's mother, who has watched his efforts day by day, knows that an inner urge has recently made him put forth the effort which, when successful, makes him feel exultant, and when interfered with, leaves him resentful. Thus, everything that a baby does tells us something about his mental life.

NERVOUS EQUIPMENT OF THE CHILD

The behavior of children involves the reaction of three kinds of structures: the receiving organs, or sense organs, which are affected by happenings in the outside world; the connecting organs, or nervous system, consisting of brain, spinal cord, and nerves; and the responding organs, or muscles and glands, by means of which the individual moves and acts.

Sense organs, or receiving organs, are found in every part of the body. The ones we ordinarily think of are the eyes, ears, nose, and tongue, all highly specialized sense organs. But it is important to know that scarcely any part of the body surface, of the muscles, tendons, or intestinal tract, is free from these sense organs, which respond to chemical changes, to pressure, heat, or pain.

All the baby's actions result from a stimulus—light, heat, hunger, pain, or what not — upon some of the baby's sense organs. Action on the part of muscles or

glands, or both (as in the child's simultaneous crying and striking out with rage), comes about when they are connected up with stimulated sense organs by means of the pathways of the nervous system, which resembles a telephone system.

Some of the baby's actions are in the form of patterns already laid down at birth, waiting to operate automatically when touched off by the appropriate stimulus. In these cases the nervous connection between sense organ and muscle or gland is already made before birth. All that is needed is something to start the nervous current.

This repertory of actions, complete and ready to function at birth, is very useful to a baby. He knows how to cry, to blink, to sneeze. He does not have to be taught to suck and swallow. When his lips are stimulated, the sucking movement, which involves many different movements of muscles and glands, automatically starts.

LONG INFANCY, OR LEARNING PERIOD, IN HUMAN BEINGS

Man differs from the animals in that he has only a few of these "full-fledged" acts, along with an enormous capacity for adapting to a large number of circumstances. Animals, on the other hand, have closely knit, relatively unchanging patterns of behavior, capable of little modification. Each species of bird, for example, has a certain stereotyped way of going about building its nest. In experiments with one kind of bird it was found that if a bird was taken off her partly built nest and put on another of the same species, but in a different stage of construction, she could not go on with it, but must start all over again.

Man is not hampered in his progress by such unswerving obligation to follow inherited lines of behavior. In building a shelter no two men would make exactly the same kind of structure. Even similar materials

would be developed in an endless number of ways by different persons.

The long period of human childhood enables the individual to build up numerous new and useful connections in the nervous system. When a situation arises for which the individual has no inherited response ready, he arrives by way of numerous trials and mistakes at an acceptable solution. Man has progressed beyond the animals by reason of his greater adaptability, because of the greater number of trials that he makes to accomplish what he sets out to do. Human progress is dependent largely on this possibility of change and modification in man's behavior.

The results in the nervous system of these new experiences are what we know as habits. Habits are merely acts in which the same stimulus has under so many circumstances brought about a certain result that it comes finally to have the power to bring it about under any circumstances.

The value of knowing how babies are stimulated and react becomes apparent when we attempt to change or direct behavior. From the moment of his birth a baby is being acted upon by stimuli of various sorts. We should keep in mind the necessity of providing an environment in which the stimuli will result in behavior useful to the developing child. If we keep in mind, for example, that anger stops the action of the digestive system, we will be careful to avoid anger-provoking situations near mealtimes.

When we observe the random behavior of a baby, we are watching his mental growth. We do not know as much about the rate at which a child's mind develops as we know about his physical growth, but we do see that the child, in the relatively short period of early childhood, makes tremendous progress.

For many years we have had only vague impressions

as to what might properly be expected of a child at various stages of his growth. So familiar are we with the miracles of walking and talking that we fail to realize that such accomplishments develop slowly. Thus, while most children can use a good many words by the time they are two, it will be impossible for some of them to pronounce such sounds as *k* and *th* correctly until they are four or five. The best indications of mental development are to be found in the bodily controls gained by a child.

Much harm has resulted from the ignorance of parents as to rates of physical and mental development. Young parents sometimes worry because their baby has not yet made any attempt to walk, at an age when the baby next door was secure on his feet. How can we know whether our children are progressing at a normal rate? Are there standards of achievement that will help us?

PROGRESSIVE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE NORMAL BABY

After long observation workers have now established tentative standards of normal development. If we know, for example, that the *average* baby does not walk alone until eighteen months, we are not going to be concerned if our baby does not live up to the record of his uncle Arthur, who walked at eight months! As we study the achievements which mark the development of the baby, we begin to realize what wide variations are possible between two babies, both of whom are normal in all respects.

From the time of the first random clutchings and wavings of arms and legs, from the time of the first crying and sucking, a baby is developing. The results of his maturation are visible to us as his progressive achievements in motor development. At first, when he is lying

on his stomach, he can only feebly raise his chin, and so prop himself up a bit, but a few weeks later he is able to raise himself so that his head is well above the bed-clothes, and he can look about. By the time he is four months old he can roll from side to back; at the age of six months his muscular control has developed so much that he can turn completely over when laid down on his back or stomach. Not content with this much movement, he soon tries sitting up, then standing, pulling himself up by the furniture. Now he creeps after a ball that has rolled away, and finally, abandoning the hand to which he has clung while walking, he totters off a few steps alone.

The stages in this panorama unroll themselves so rapidly that we seldom stop to think of the changes that must be taking place in a child's body to bring about such achievements. Not only has the baby been growing bigger while these things have been happening, but he has been maturing as well. The distinction between growth in size and development in function, or maturation, is an important one. If an infant were to grow in size only, without the accompanying changes in maturation, he would be unable to walk or talk, to hold a cup or steer a kiddie-kar. While we should not think of growth in size and maturation in function as two distinct and separate things, it is helpful in considering children's training to remember that we must not judge children on size alone, but also on the basis of their internal readiness to perform this or that act.

Sitting up alone, creeping, using toys, copying little tricks like pat-a-cake—such are the evidences we have during the first year that development is proceeding normally. As we shall see in the chapter on Social Development, smiles, laughter, tears, and shyness all show us that a baby is maturing socially as well as physically.

Perhaps the most exciting evidences of a baby's mental and social development are his attempts to use speech. During the first months of life he has begun to make random sounds, at first formless and incomprehensible, but affording him some satisfaction, if we may judge from the amount of time he spends making meaningless noises. His first utterances consist of vowel sounds, many different variations on *a* and *u*, sounds that have appeared still earlier in his crying. *M*, *p*, and *b* seem to be the first consonants that a baby uses. Other vowel and consonant sounds are speedily added, and from the time he is three months old he couples together the consonants and vowels to make such combinations as *um*, *ma*, *mum*, *goo*. A bit later, he begins to double up these single syllables, and produces many such phrases as *wah-wah*, *lul-lul*, *buh-buh*, to which he may return over and over again with evident enjoyment. This period is known as the babble stage.

Imitation begins to play a large part in a child's language development as soon as he catches on to the social nature of speech. Now, by watching adults, by interest in making himself understood, a child begins to get the idea of grouping into new combinations the sounds he has made in his spontaneous babbling. When one of these combinations sounds like a real word, everyone is quick to praise and encourage the baby, who after repeated imitations, becomes proud of his ability to draw attention by this new feat.

DEVELOPMENT OF SPEECH

The baby, through repeated association of a certain sound he has heard his mother make, with a certain object, place, or person, begins to have a large vocabulary of understood words before he can say any of them. Then, some day, he utters his first word. If a baby is exceptionally bright he may speak this first word by the

time he is eight or nine months old, but ordinarily it may be expected somewhere from the tenth to the twelfth month. Many babies have a vocabulary of two or three words when they are a year old, but speech in the sense of combining words into phrases and sentences cannot be said to be established until a child is between a year and a half and two years old. A child may, however, be said to be "talking" when he uses several words in addition to the terms he employs to designate his mother and father. So much practice in articulation is necessary that it is not until they are more than eighteen months old that more than half of what babies say becomes comprehensible to an adult.

At first a single word serves the purpose of a whole sentence; thus, "drink" means "baby wants a drink," or "ride" expresses his desire to be taken out of doors. Much of his vocabulary at this stage consists of nouns, since they are the names of things in which he is interested. Verbs gradually constitute a larger and larger element in his speech, while adjectives, pronouns, and adverbs come a little more slowly. From his second birthday to his seventh a child makes the amazing yearly addition to his vocabulary of about six hundred words.

In general, brighter children talk earlier, dull children later than the average. Language development is considerably affected by the environment surrounding a child. In a rich environment, such as that of a child much with adults, the use of language tends to be precocious. On the other hand, twins frequently show a marked language retardation because, associating almost exclusively with each other, each imitates the imperfect speech of the other twin. Once twins get into school and are surrounded by children whose speech offers a better model for copy, development of correct speech is rapid. Girls in general develop the use of speech

slightly more rapidly than boys. By the time they are ready for kindergarten both boys and girls should be able to speak clearly, with no infantile mispronunciation.

A child's manipulative powers should be steadily advancing. At a year he should hold and drink well from a cup. At eighteen months, if he has had opportunity to experiment, he can feed himself without much spilling. He can now walk alone (many children of course walk much earlier). He may be trained to bowel control; bladder control is established somewhat later, two years being the average time. The child who is allowed to do for himself shows greater progress than one whose impulses along this line are not taken advantage of. At four years a child should be able to dress and wash himself, and do little tasks and run errands in the neighborhood for his mother.

The motor sequence pictured on the next page shows the progress of motor control as determined by Shirley's study of twenty-five babies, who were tested at frequent intervals from birth up to the age of two years.

STANDARDS SUGGESTIVE OF NORMAL DEVELOPMENT

The following standards suggestive of normal development have been taken from Dr. Arnold Gesell and serve to indicate in a general way the development of the child at different age levels.

That the standards are only suggestive must be kept in mind. There may be a variation of several months either way, in point of the child's achievements, without a departure from the normal. These thumbnail sketches of the infant and child at different ages are in no way sharply defined. They present a picture of the average achievement of the ordinary child along three lines—the learning of motor control, of language, and of social behavior.

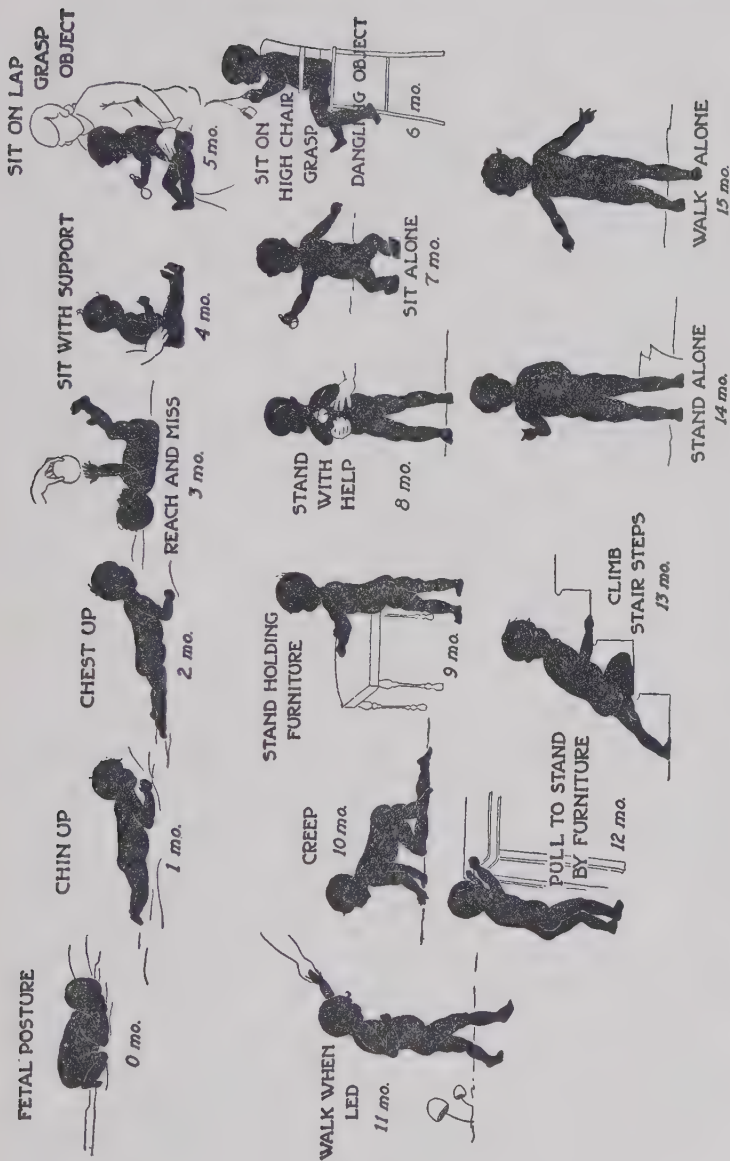


Figure 4. The Motor Sequence (from Mary M. Shirley, *The First Two Years*, Vol. II).

MOTOR CHARACTERISTICS	LANGUAGE	PERSONAL-SOCIAL BEHAVIOR
	<i>Two Months</i>	
Lifts chest above surface when prone.	Attends to person speaking. Vocalizes.	Turns head in response to speaking voice.
	<i>Four Months</i>	
Holds head erect when carried. Tries to raise self, lifting head and shoulders. Can roll from side to back, or back to side.	Makes several vocalizations. Laughs aloud.	Not much affected by strange persons, new scenes, or solitude. Plays with hands and with rattle.
	<i>Six Months</i>	
Prefers to sit up, with support. Sits momentarily without support. Can roll from back to stomach (or stomach to back). Uses hands to reach, grasp, crumple, bang, and splash.	Is responsive to animated facial expression. Vocalizes several syllables.	Expresses recognition of familiar persons. May show consciousness of strangers. Reacts to other children.
	<i>Nine Months</i>	
Sits alone. Makes stepping movements when feet touch floor. Reaches for objects persistently.	Says dada or mama or equivalent. Makes rhythmic movements to music.	Restores bottle to mouth. May know a trick or two like peek-a-boo. Waves bye-bye.
	<i>Twelve Months</i>	
Stands with support. Walks with help. Shows a preference for one hand in reaching.	Comprehends simple verbal commissions. Says two words.	Inhibits simple acts on command. Cooperates while he is being dressed. Holds a cup to drink out of and may use a spoon.
	<i>Fifteen Months</i>	
Walks alone.	Says four words. Uses jargon.	Uses spoon.
	<i>Eighteen Months</i>	
Climbs chair or stair. Throws ball in box.	Says five or more words. Points to nose, eyes, or hair. Says hello, thank you or equivalent.	Uses spoon without much spilling. Bowel control practically established. Habitually inhibits certain acts. Looks at pictures.

MOTOR CHARACTERISTICS	LANGUAGE	PERSONAL-SOCIAL BEHAVIOR
<i>Two Years</i>		
Can operate a kiddie- kar around a chair. Can fold paper. Runs.	Uses simple sentences and phrases. Names familiar objects like key, penny, watch.	Bladder control estab- lished. Listens to stories with pictures. Tells experiences. Asks for things at table by name.
<i>Three Years</i>		
Builds tower of more than four blocks. Draws a circle from copy. Discriminates longer and shorter lines.	Uses plurals, pronouns, and past tense.	Can open door. Asks questions of eld- ers. Pretends in his play. Crosses street alone. Puts away toys.
<i>Four Years</i>		
Draws cross from copy.	Uses descriptive word with picture. Buttons clothes.	Goes on errands out- side of house. Washes self, brushes teeth.
<i>Five Years</i>		
Draws triangle from copy.	Defines words by use. Speaks with non- infantile articula- tion.	Draws recognizable man and tree. Laces shoes. Puts on coat and hat alone. Names four colors. Tells age.

It is well to keep in the forefront of attention the wide variations between babies' development in order that we may avoid forcing our children when they fail to come up to our preconceived standards. On the other hand, we may also know so little of normal mental growth that we do not expect enough of them. The wise procedure is to furnish a simple, free environment, where the baby will have ample opportunity for behaving as his developing impulses and needs tell him to. There should be relatively little need of intervention by adults, if the child's needs are really met.

A young mother expressed a feeling that is common to many first experiencing her problem. "I've tried everything," she said, "and *I can't make* my baby stop

trying to stand up in his high-chair or baby-carriage." Her program did not allow for the baby's growth beyond nine months. Had she provided a pen where he might stand up to his heart's content her time would have been saved and her worry over the danger of his falling avoided. Because she had become accustomed to caring for a baby who stayed where he was put, she did not see that failure to meet his changing needs increased the problem of care.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

We are prone to forget that there are differences in the quality, as well as in the quantity, of children's achievements. It is of importance that persons responsible for training children recognize individual differences between them in both mental and emotional make-up.

While on the whole the children in a family are more alike than those outside, there are many influences which make them differ markedly from one another. Just as differences appear in eye and hair color, in stature, and in weight, so research has shown that children with the same line of heredity differ widely in power of attention, in quickness of reaction to stimulus, in span of memory, and in power of controlling emotion.

Early recognition of individual differences in ability or capacity along special lines may greatly enhance a child's chances of success. Parents realize that there are wide differences in personality among their children, but untrained observers cannot be expected to recognize that one child, for example, has exceptional power for learning a thing by ear, while he has great difficulty in forming mental pictures of words or shapes.

Parents often do not realize the danger of calling attention to the superiority of one child over another in a specific field. The fact that one learns easily and quickly

comes up for mention often, and thus jealousy is aroused in the mind of the other child. The second child, who has great difficulty in remembering the two or three articles which he has been asked to get at the grocery store, may retain and make use of what he learns laboriously, after the facile, rote learning of the first child has long ceased to function.

There is often a discrepancy between the mental and physical development of a child. To judge by age, by size, or by appearance is likely to have disastrous effects, and discipline based on such considerations may be very unfair and harmful. In one family the second child, a boy, grew as large as his sister, who was two years older. Not understanding the difference in rates of development of body and brain, the parents laid great stress on the behavior of the boy, who, they thought, should not be any more clumsy and awkward than his sister of the same size. As a matter of fact, when difficult disciplinary problems made necessary an examination of the seven-year-old boy, it was found that in mental capacity he was only five years old, while his family had been expecting him to understand, reason, and behave as befitted an average nine-year-old. Here the failure, with its attendant discouragement, had another unfortunate emotional effect — that of making the child jealous.

While we cannot expect to measure differences in the emotions as definitely as we can recognize differences in mental equipment, it is most helpful in training for self-control or inhibition of certain emotions to have all the evidence available about a child.

Capacity for learning is an asset, but capacity for ready emotional adjustment is of equally great importance, and is susceptible of much influence by early environment. Some children fail, as we say, in the formal education to which they are subjected. The right education would give to those children confidence and experi-

ence in those lines where ability was discovered, even if it was ability dissimilar to that of the majority. The successful individual is not necessarily intelligent; his success may be partly due to luck or accident. But the person whose emotions are well expressed, who has sound judgment, who can adjust his thinking to new demands, who can persist in steady effort, will more nearly reach his goal.

After long experimentation, tests have been standardized which do away to some extent with our blundering treatment of children. No test of the intelligence pretends to give an accurate estimate of the individual's mind or ability. But the possibilities inherent in a child may be pointed out with a fair degree of accuracy. A variety of tests serves to indicate the adaptability of the child along many lines, and to point out emotional reactions.

We know that to have a keen intelligence may profit a child little if he has not the ability to stick by an undertaking to its conclusion. Again, we see that a child only average in intelligence who accepts defeat with buoyancy and attacks difficulties with good humor may reach heights to which, without his particular combination of emotional characteristics, he might never have climbed.

Very slight native differences are often exaggerated by environment. One child in a family may show ease of adaptation in social situations, while another is shy, awkward, and easily confused. The personalities of the two may or may not have been very similar at birth. But if the older child was alone much with his parents and saw few visitors in his first years, while the younger, owing to changed circumstances, has seen much social activity in the home, and has learned to be hail-fellow-well-met in any gathering, it is not hard to see what a part surroundings have played.

In many cases one child in a family has all the opportunities for practice, because he has shown ability, or is the oldest, or is endowed with a suggestible personality. Such treatment may or may not work out to the individual's advantage. In the family where the oldest child is always given certain jobs "because he can do them so much better," how can the younger ones be expected to acquire skill and efficiency? Sometimes, too, the excessive amount of practice which an oldest child gets along one line, amounting to drudgery, has the effect of making him loathe that particular kind of thing later. A mother of four children was criticized for leaving them in the care of others too frequently. Had her critics known of her early life, when as the oldest child, she had had almost the entire care of a long succession of brothers and sisters, her behavior would have called forth less unfavorable comment. Tasks and requirements should be based on the relative age and development of a child, rather than on his position in the family.

Whenever we find marked differences between the children of a family, we must undertake to provide opportunities which will give outlets to the unique abilities of each child, no matter in what different directions those abilities may lead. The shortsightedness of parents who try to develop their children along lines in which they themselves are interested or capable is accountable for much unhappiness. Each normal individual has within him or her the possibilities of a happy, useful adult life, and the sympathetic search for and development of a number of these innate possibilities lie within the power of the parent.

QUESTIONS

1. When would you begin to try to teach a child to (a) put on his own shoes? (b) say please and thank you? (c) go on an errand in another room?

2. Which of the following acts are mainly instinctive, which learned?
 - a. Drawing back from being tickled.
 - b. Turning up coat collar when cold.
 - c. Saying da-da.
 - d. Saying daddy.
 - e. Turning with distaste from a particular food.
3. Herbert, eleven, is a bright boy, very fond of reading, particularly geographical or historical material, which he remembers well and passes on to his younger brothers and sisters in long tales. His outstanding fault is absent-mindedness and forgetfulness; he cannot be trusted to remember errands or messages; is very sorry, but can't seem to mend his ways. How do you account for this, and what steps would you take in such a situation?
4. Elsie, nine years, has been slow in acquiring skill in habits like dressing, arranging the table neatly, dusting, and sweeping, as compared to her older sister, Anne, eleven, at the same age. Suggest three possible explanations of this behavior.

Chapter 6

LEARNING

"Such an interesting thing happened today," Mrs. Smith told her husband while he was watching her put the baby to bed. "John had waked up from his nap and was crying—I knew he was hungry. When I went in and closed the window in his room he stopped at once, and lay there, good as gold, till I could take him up and feed him. He must have *learned* that the sound of the window being closed means that he's going to be fed."

Through the inherited behavior with which he was born, a part of which was the ability to make known his wants through crying; this baby has added a bit of learning, or acquired behavior. As he develops, each newly acquired piece of behavior contributes its share toward his personality. If the new things he learns help him to adjust readily, without great strain or irritation, his happiness, as well as the comfort of those with whom he comes in contact, will be greatly enhanced.

When an individual's responses are inadequate to a situation, learning always occurs. In fact, learning would be unnecessary if a solution of every situation were at hand. The adjustment of all individuals depends largely on whether they find a good and satisfactory way out of the many emotional situations which have come about as a result of blocking or thwarting. A child is constantly called upon to adjust to the desires of other persons, to social restraints, and to conflicts between his own impulses.

We may have been accustomed to think of learning and education as beginning with a child's school life. As a matter of fact, learning begins at the child's birth, and proceeds whether or not we do anything to further it. In an environment where every activity is cramped

and stifled he learns a quite different set of habits from those of a child whose needs have been carefully studied and met in so far as possible. A child who lives in an emotionally unstable atmosphere, where the nervous tension is high, where the parents react petulantly one moment, caressingly the next, to the child's advances, will early learn shrewd methods of approaching adults. But he may also learn habits of irritation and inconsistency.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING HABIT FORMATION

A knowledge of some underlying principles which may be applied to children's learning should help us in evoking desirable responses. An infant is, save when asleep, in a state of almost ceaseless activity. Legs, arms, hands, fingers, and head are in more or less constant motion; the eyes and ears are constantly receiving stimuli which result before long in definite learning on the part of the baby. Upon this basis of action and contact with his surroundings a child builds up behavior patterns by experience.

1. Trial and Error Behavior

Out of these ceaseless, random, spontaneous movements a child eventually develops related, harmonized movements that bring him in touch with his environment. Thus, the aimless hitting movements that have by chance resulted in his hand striking a brightly colored ball gradually become knit together into an action pattern by which he gets his hands around the ball voluntarily.

When a child is about to acquire any new habit—for instance, learning to handle a cup or spoon—we observe that he makes many of these unnecessary and useless movements. He turns it this way and that, he holds it now one way, now another, he drops it and picks it up

again, he spills again and again. The correct holding of a cup or spoon is a complicated act involving many different muscular movements. A child has to take the many little separate actions and connect them into a pattern. This tendency to make many seemingly useless and unnecessary movements is described by the very expressive term, *trial and error behavior*. Both children and adults, as well as animals, have to go through the process. A child learning to write wriggles his feet, moves his head, sticks out his tongue, and goes through a thousand and one apparently foolish movements. But after months and months of practice he writes smoothly and well, using only the muscles of his arm, hand, and fingers.

Gradually the child who is learning to lace his shoes eliminates some of the awkward positions incident to his first trials. He captures the trick, when he is learning to tie a bow, of deftly changing the loop from one hand to the other without having it vanish as he tries to wind the other shoe lace around it.

Perhaps an adult who has fairly recently learned to play golf or run a typewriter will have a clear idea of the process of motor coordination that is going on in a child in connection with such habits as learning to dress, to manipulate a tricycle, or to dry dishes.

Many parents, who have passed through the trial and error stage and have developed smooth-running and automatic habits, become impatient with the trial and error behavior of their children. They do not realize that it is an essential part of learning, that children are much more incautious and impulsive in new situations than are grown-ups, and that we learn both through our errors and through our correct responses. A little girl, fond of sewing, was cutting out a dress for her doll. Her mother refrained from interfering when she saw that the child was cutting both sleeves for one arm.

When the dress was nearly done the child discovered her error, and the mother explained the proper use of the pattern. While that particular dress was ruined for lack of more cloth, the child never forgot. In making hundreds of dresses she has never again cut both sleeves for one arm.

Though there are times when a slight suggestion from the parent will simplify the learning process for a child, it is usually true that the child should have some opportunity to try things out for himself, and learn from actual experience.

2. Practice or Repetition

The second important principle in the building of a habit is the principle of much practice. The old adage says that practice makes perfect. Practice means many, many repetitions. A child who has great difficulty in lacing his shoes at three years of age may at five lace them with great ease, because in the intervening period he has practiced some seven hundred times. It may take him ten or fifteen minutes of patient effort the first time; it may not take more than that many seconds a few years later. Sometimes, on the other hand, the number of repetitions necessary to bring about a habit is surprisingly few. Take for instance the month-old baby in whom the undesirable habit of thumb sucking is already well established. This brings us to the third principle of habit formation.

3. Law of Effect or Satisfaction

The success or satisfaction which accompanies an act has much to do with the rapidity with which the habit is formed. A reaction with pleasant results is more quickly learned than one where no pleasure follows. In the case of thumb sucking, the feeling of solace and comfort which the sucking movement brings the child

is responsible quite as much as the number of repetitions for quickly setting the habit.

The result of an act must be satisfactory to the child — although not necessarily so to the adult — if learning is to be brought about. Only when some measure of success is attained does a child have a feeling of satisfaction. A few words of praise bestowed now and then on his somewhat bungling attempts will often do more toward helping a child acquire a desirable habit than any amount of unfavorable comment. To point out a child's mistakes rather than his successes, in other words, is to set up in his mind an unpleasant association with the desired act. The wise parent who wishes his child to learn to lace his shoes will compliment him, even though he occasionally misses a hole or falls short of an adult standard.

A warning is necessary with regard to the amount of practice in connection with a habit. In a study of children's learning it was found that those who had a short drill every day learned much faster than did those who had occasional long drills. Frequent short practice, with pleasure, brings progress better than occasional prolonged practice with resulting fatigue and unpleasant feelings. Much of the difficulty with regard to piano practice doubtless is associated with the lengthy period that a child is supposed to spend at the piano. Too long-continued practice, or too much forcing, may cause him to lose both interest and effectiveness. A small boy who could not yet manage the formation of the letter *y* in such words as *yellow* (which he pronounced *zellow*) was so often urged to make the *y* sound that he finally refused for a long time to try any words involving the use of that sound.

So closely are the two principles of satisfaction and repetition interwoven that it is almost impossible to consider one without the other. The boy of ten who

must still be reminded to wash before meals and the girl who never remembers to hang up her clothes are acutely exasperating to their mothers. "Surely they have repeated those acts enough times to make them habitual!" cry the distracted mothers. But what satisfaction is there to the small boy in washing? Does he care greatly whether his hands are clean or not? As yet, his food tastes just as good when eaten with soiled as with clean hands. Has the girl who repeatedly leaves her room looking as though a cyclone had struck it experienced any satisfaction in connection with having things appear neat and orderly? Have not the comments come in the form of fault-finding when things have gone badly rather than in praise or delight over some occasion when the child did make an effort?

4. Simple and Early Beginnings

A fourth principle in habit formation is that of starting early and simply. If a child has too many things to learn at one time the learning of one may interfere with the learning of another. And further, if a habit is incorrectly learned at the outset, it may seriously interfere with the later formation of the correct habit. Many of us spend a great deal of time correcting habits which should never have been formed, rather than a smaller amount of time in correctly establishing habits when the child is most plastic and ready. If we realized that the process of building habit consists in knitting many separate and isolated actions into an *action pattern*, we should be much more careful to see that the right elements went into the habit.

If at table we expect a four-year-old to sit straight, hold his spoon correctly, take small bites, talk only between bites, and not kick the rungs of his chair, is it surprising that the child becomes fretful and balky? Concentration on the learning of a few habits at a time

will prevent irritation and confusion. We must be on the alert not to take unfair advantage of a child's plasticity.

Important as it is to begin early, so as to be sure that constructive habits, rather than those following the line of least resistance will be formed, it is equally important not to try to teach a child things he is not yet ready to learn. Thus, as we shall see in Chapter 10, to try to teach a baby to control urination during the very early months is not only wasted effort but may encourage a poor response of frequent urination. We must wait until a child has matured to the point where he can make use of our training. Many of the things that we thoughtlessly expect of a child are based on our ignorance of his degree of maturity. Thus, we may ask a four-year-old to "be quiet," not realizing that for a child of this age to refrain from talking for more than four or five minutes involves real strain.

Again, the folly of hurrying children into things they are not yet ready structurally to do is suggested by an experiment in which one twin was taught to climb stairs, the other allowed to remain untaught. When the latter became mature enough so that she herself felt impelled to try to climb steps, she learned at a faster rate than had her sister. Another experiment, in which children were given practice in buttoning, and cutting with scissors, as well as with climbing, showed that weeks of intensive training were comparatively unimportant when measured against maturation.

Such findings are to be interpreted not as suggesting that a child's opportunities for expanding his abilities shall be limited but that we wait upon his own interest in achieving new things. The baby who wants to try to use a spoon should be allowed to do so. The four-year-old who wants to try his hand at using scissors should be encouraged to experiment under safe conditions.

SUGGESTIBILITY

An important phase of this period of rapid and easy learning is the learning that takes place by suggestion. The ease with which stimuli are at this time transmitted through the nervous system makes a child amenable to a very wide range of stimulus situations. His surroundings, the personalities with which he comes in close contact, all influence almost irrevocably the direction of his habits. He begins at this time to acquire lasting attitudes and impressions. Since he accepts without question the verdict of anyone to whom he looks up, it is of the greatest importance that the actions and attitudes of the older persons about him should furnish him with reliable standards of conduct.

CONDITIONED RESPONSES

One of the commonest occasions of making a new connection between a stimulus and a response arises when a stimulus is presented many times, or very intensely, in connection with a particular action. The sight of his mother originally has not the power to make a baby laugh. But after many smiles on the part of the mother, together with caresses which tend to make the baby smile in return, the mere sight of the mother, with no fondling or caressing whatever, has the power to make the baby smile or laugh. The laughter on the part of the baby we call the *conditioned response*, since it has been brought about by a stimulus other than the one which originally induced it.

A baby whose ball had rolled under a hot radiator hurt his hand in reaching for it before an adult could stop him. This one trial and error performance, so sharply impressed on the child by pain, was enough to make him use great care thereafter when near the radiator, whether it was hot or cold. He had been conditioned against the radiator, which in itself was not a

stimulus sufficient to set off fear or caution. The biologically adequate stimulus, pain, was transferred to the radiator, itself a perfectly indifferent stimulus.

The sight of a cat has not originally the power to make a child run; in other words, is not one of the biological stimuli that make a child run. But one child, because cats had been vigorously chased away from a bird's nest in the yard, was conditioned against cats and thereafter ran in fright whenever he saw one.

A practical application of learning should be kept in mind. Care must be taken that certain behavior is provoked under certain conditions, if it is hoped that in future similar situations the same behavior may be brought about. For example, if a child who falls and hurts himself is commiserated with as little as possible, and the whole situation made light of, even hard tumbles will presently bring about the conditioned response of brave and laughing behavior. The converse is also often strikingly illustrated; we must take care not to provoke certain behavior under certain conditions unless we want it always to appear under those circumstances. If we choose a time when a child is tired or out of sorts to ask him to do a task, we run the risk of rousing irritable behavior whenever we suggest that or another task.

Frequently conditioning takes place to stimuli which are not intentionally connected with the response. For instance, a child may be punished by being placed in a dark room. The punishment is designed to prevent similar misdemeanors in the future. But what actually happens is that the fear aroused in the child's mind becomes associated with the darkness rather than with the punishment, so that later the child is afraid of the dark when no punishment is involved.

Both children and adults build up many conditioned reactions or associations with stimuli without knowing

the situations which originated them. A certain slight, delicately formed man, extremely nearsighted, has great contempt for many outdoor sports. For many years he made no attempt to explain this feeling, until it occurred to him that his dislike of these sports might be closely bound up with his physical handicap and with his intense antipathy, from boyhood, toward a muscular and energetic cousin who excelled in this type of thing. His responses toward the whole field of sport have been conditioned by this combination of poor eyesight and poor physique. His dislike of the cousin, as well, is perhaps a conditioned response to the cousin's vigor and energy.

A thoughtless explanation of his dislike of sports would probably have been, "He inherited it from his father, who never enjoyed active exercise." As a matter of fact, both he and his father may have inherited the same kind of physique. Add to this the fact that the boy did not have encouragement from his father to see or take part in sports, and we have a good basis for the building up of such a response as actually occurred.

In the case of a person who grows up with a fear of lightning, or of deep water, the difficulty is often overcome when the individual realizes that the fear is only a learned, conditioned response to a stimulus which originally had no power to set off the fear reaction in him.

NEGATIVE ADAPTATION

Another kind of learning, very important in a child's training, has to do with developing his power of attention toward stimuli which we hope will awaken a response; and, on the other hand, with developing a resistant attitude toward certain stimuli which might better pass unnoticed.

To speak to or give a command to a child who is ab-

sorbed in something interesting is, from the point of view of his training, a very dangerous thing to do. This may sound absurd, in view of the fact that the child is usually absorbed. The custom in the army of calling men to attention before any order is given illustrates pointedly what should be taken into account in training children. Unless attention is secured, and the proper response, answer, or act takes place each time the child is called, the stimulus gradually loses its power to bring any response at all. A child who is called, and who is not helped always to make a response to the call, comes by degrees not to hear the call at all. This has been termed *negative adaptation*.

There are certain times when the ability not to attend to certain stimuli is very useful. We want children to become impervious to many minor discomforts such as heat, or a rainy day, or some degree of noise when studying. We can build up in a child the habit of ignoring such things by seeing to it that he has engrossing interests to keep his attention from being secured by distracting stimuli. For example, we should not expect a boy to continue to be absorbed in an uninteresting and dry lesson when music and laughter were audible in the next room. But if he were studying electricity, or chemistry — anything of intense interest to him — the noise and laughter might safely go on without his hearing it. In the same way, an adaptation to disagreeable weather might be built up by a mother who always took pains to provide some especially amusing occupation for her children on a rainy day.

More often, however, we find we have unwittingly adapted a child negatively toward acts and commands which we very much wish him to heed. To prevent this we must never, in the beginning of our training, give an order unless we are sure that the child's attention has been distracted from whatever absorbed him. Too often

our haste, or the immediate affairs of the household, seeming at the moment of some importance, interfere with the establishment of this procedure. The sudden thought of something needed from the grocer's before lunch is enough to make many mothers call a child peremptorily and begin giving directions, without waiting to see if his toy fire engine has just driven up in front of a blazing house.

Every time we fail to get a child's attention before giving a suggestion or command we weaken the bonds between the stimulus of our voice and the response of the child. Habits of obedience cannot be established without consideration of this process of learning by negative adaptation.

SUMMARY

To summarize we may say that a child inherits some action patterns and acquires others. The process of building habit is essentially the process of making certain connections between stimuli and responses and of knitting responses into patterns. If we would control the behavior of a child and build into his behavior correct modes of meeting situations, we must seek to determine the stimuli which will produce correct actions; and if a child is acting incorrectly, must ask what stimuli are producing the incorrect responses. If a stimulus is presented many times or very intensely in connection with a particular action, that stimulus may come always to set off the action. This process is known as conditioning. We notice that in acquiring a habit a child goes through trial and error behavior, making many seemingly useless and unnecessary responses; that through practice these disappear; that a satisfactory result to the child helps to establish that response; and that a beginning must be made early and simply. Good habits are as readily acquired as bad, provided the environment of a child is well controlled.

QUESTIONS

1. Joan's mother told her she would give her a penny every time she remembered to feed the canary. After the first week Joan forgot as often as before. Explain why this reward failed to bring any lasting results.
2. Give from your experience examples of a conditioned response in a child and in an adult.
3. By what means might one set up pleasant associations in the mind of a child in connection with habits of dressing, undressing, putting away toys?
4. Elinore, one and one-half years, in the process of being corrected for sucking the left thumb, suddenly begins on the right thumb, formerly untouched. What methods do you surmise were being used to correct her thumb sucking?
5. Bob, nine years, cleans up before meals only after being reminded, and under protest. Why has not washing-up long since become a habit?
6. Mrs. A. wants to build a church-going habit in her children, who are now three and five. They are very restless during the hour and a half that they must sit still in church. Suggest possible results of following this procedure every Sunday. Describe means which you would use to further a habit of church-going, at these ages or later ones.

Chapter 7

EMOTIONAL HABITS

Tommy was pushing his train around the floor, chugging and puffing realistically, when the doorbell rang. Immediately he jumped to his feet and toddled toward the door, shouting "Gram'ma's coming! Gram'ma's coming!" and showing every sign of great delight.

"Look what Tommy's got! He'll cut himself!" called Jim, snatching a paring knife from his little brother. Tommy burst into tears and hit out at Jim, trying to recapture the knife. But it was all over in a moment, for Grandma quickly distracted his attention by picking up a book and asking "Why, what's this boy got on his head?" and in a moment Tommy was all smiles again.

These different ways of reacting are well-known signs of emotion. They are very familiar to us all, because occasions are constantly arising to make us feel angry, afraid, hurt, sad, or joyous, as the case may be. We know what it is to feel our hearts beat fast at thrilling music, to feel a blush spreading when we suddenly become the center of attention. When we say that our hair stood on end with fright, or that we were so angry that we nearly burst a blood vessel, we are describing some of the bodily changes indicative of emotion with which everyone is acquainted.

Emotion is always brought about by a change in the existing situation, either a disturbing change that interferes with the smooth progress of things or a change that brings about a more satisfying condition. An example of the first kind of stimulus is the hunger that irritates a baby; of the second, the pleasurable feelings he has when his hunger is assuaged.

Emotion arises when a person meets a situation for



Will it fit in this box?

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Learning by doing things, not just reading about them.

From *All the Children*, 37th Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, City of New Y

which he has no adequate response ready. Its presence in the body means that widespread changes are going on, by means of which activity is speeded up. Visible evidences of the presence of emotion are change of color, rapid or slow breathing, perspiration, crying, or other indications that visceral and glandular changes are going on. These changes indicate that while the individual's organism is thrown into a state of confusion because of his ignorance as to how to proceed, the indecision that he feels makes it possible for a great variety of trial and error responses to spring up.

Thus these bodily changes occur to some purpose, for it is the function of emotion to aid the individual in situations where his natural responses need reinforcement, to speed and facilitate and add variety to his movements or other forms of self-expression. The excitement stirred up in a child by fear helps him to run away, to hide, or to scream; the pleasure aroused by the sight of a birthday present makes him throw his arms around the giver or run to tell his mother the big news. Emotion may be so intense as to result in inadequacy, rather than greater adequacy, in a given situation, but its biological function is to give aid in times of stress. It is useful in that it forces the individual into more variable behavior than he would otherwise have at his command. It makes possible rapid adjustments in new and unexpected situations.

It was supposed until fairly recently that at birth babies exhibit the three simple or primary emotions of love, rage, and fear; but it has gradually become clear, in the light of many experiments, that the first emotional reactions consist of diffused excitement rather than of specific patterns of behavior.

It is probably fairly accurate to say that the first emotions to become differentiated may be described as *distress* and *delight*. These form the basis on the one

hand for feelings of aggression and avoidance, seen in anger and fear, and on the other of love, joy, and pleasure. The young baby reacts to loud noises, removal of support, sudden pain, and physical restraint by crying. Experiences crowd so fast that learning almost immediately begins to alter the picture; at the same time the infant is maturing, and showing keener perceptions of all the new and unusual things to which he is exposed. Thus, while the original diffused emotions of excitement, distress, and delight will continue to be present throughout life, many more specific emotions begin to be differentiated as the child adds to his experience, and presently we can truly say that a child shows anger or fear or jealousy, as the case may be.

The building up of these specific reactions comes about through repeated stimulation. The original excitement termed distress tends to turn into typical fear reactions in situations where the baby is startled by sudden shocks — abrupt movements, sudden loud noises, sharp pain. The motor responses recognized as anger appear when a baby's reactions are interfered with. Thus a baby may struggle, grow red, thrust and kick with his arms and legs when his freedom of movement is curtailed by the operations of bathing and dressing him, or when his bottle is taken away. He may show the characteristic withdrawal behavior of fear when he is suddenly confronted with a grinning mask or when someone he knows well appears in a new hat. As a child develops, situations that did not originally produce fear startle him, either because of their unusual nature or because, as we saw in the chapter on learning, he has been conditioned to them.

Among the most striking contributions of the earliest studies of emotion in infants was the upsetting of the old notion that there are inherited fears, as of animals or of the dark. Watson found that the babies he worked

with were quite unafraid of a large black cat; they were as ready to pick up a snake as a rabbit, and were equally interested in both.

The lack of specific inborn emotional reactions in infants offers so striking a contrast to the many and varied responses of older children and adults that we are moved to wonder how these great changes have come about. Even in the preschool child we may observe as many as seven or eight rather definite emotions. Blocking of his actions results in angry protests. Affection and love are displayed by caresses and gentle consideration for those who have taken care of him. Jealousy, fear, shame, elation, and disappointment are all familiar responses in children of three or four, under the appropriate provocation.

This quick growth of emotional habits makes us see the close relation between emotion and learning, and also the necessity for guiding the early emotional behavior of children in such a way that useful and constructive responses will become customary. When a child finds himself faced with one of the many problems for which he has no answer, the internal changes that we call emotion take place, and the puzzled child makes attempts at a solution. Sometimes he hits on one that is satisfying and seems to serve the purpose. The child who bites the hand of another child whose toy he wants uses a bungling method that may partially solve the immediate problem for him. If the other child yields, he may feel that he has learned a way out of such difficulties, only to find that the next child on whom he tries this method does not let him have his way so easily.

The temper tantrum is another means by which a child seeks to meet a new situation. If he receives attention and is given in to, he will try out this performance again and again. If, somehow, he is helped to a response more adequate and satisfying than the temper

tantrum, he will be free from a whole series of difficulties. That some other and more efficient method of meeting the situation exists must be demonstrated to the child.

In order to guide children's emotions wisely it is of first importance to develop an objective attitude toward the emotional behavior. The mother who shrieks or slaps back at her child when he angrily tries to resist her is letting the emotion the child feels affect her personally. She will lessen her troubles and strengthen the child's stability if she will instead ask herself, at critical moments, "What kind of situation provokes him to act this way? What kind of behavior can I help him establish that will help him to meet similar situations in the future?"

A two-year-old, curious and inquisitive, becomes furious when he is prevented from opening drawers and taking things out, as he has seen adults do. His excitement is dissipated along harmless lines when he has access to some drawers of his own, whose contents he may touch and handle.

Whenever the adjustment a child makes to an emotional situation is inadequate, it will mean that over and over again tension will arise in this same situation. If a child once learns that 7×8 is 56, he has an adequate response ready whenever he needs it. If he cannot remember from one time to another, a persistent condition of tension exists in regard to that problem.

When we contrast the simple, general emotional reactions of the newborn baby with the responses of the adult, we are struck with the magnitude of the changes that have come about. How has it happened that the adult has acquired so many strange likes and dislikes, so many fixed opinions and prejudices? If we recall the ways in which learning takes place in a child, we see that many of these attitudes and feelings, hatreds and

fears in the adult have come about through the unpleasant associations he has made with certain ideas and objects. Our interest, after recognizing the ease with which such unhappy associations can be built up, lies in finding ways in which disastrous associations may be prevented, and useful ones formed. For example, knowing how few things actually cause fear in the infant, we will try to guard against the possibility of his experiencing shocks that serve no useful purpose.

CAUSES OF FEAR

Fear was one of man's earliest emotions and is thought by some writers to have furnished the chief spur to his survival and to the evolution of his mind. Only fears of things that endanger existence are useful nowadays. Fear often persists, in the form of worry, when a positive attitude is needed. The chronic worrier is more often beset by imagined than by real dangers. "The fear which tightens one's grip on one's own purpose ceases to be fear, and becomes strength, vigilance, iron resolution."

The high degree of the young child's suggestibility has a close connection with his easy acquisition of fear. Particular care must be taken that stories or conversations are not misunderstood, thus confusing and alarming the child. One sensitive child whose parents had tried to prevent fear developed a fear of the dark from hearing an adult mention in an excited tone that someone "must hurry home. It's getting dark."

Stories having an element of tragedy or horror should not be read or told to very young children. As a child grows older and has more experience, such stories have less effect. In many cases of night terrors fright of this nature is the original cause. Great care should be used also in the selection of moving pictures and radio programs for young children.

The intensity of emotion with which younger children view a motion picture is pointed out by tests which show them to be three times as much excited, as measured by a galvanometer, as adults. Restlessness in sleep, after seeing a picture, extends into the fourth or fifth night for many children.

Threats by unthinking parents or ignorant servants are often responsible for an increasingly fearful attitude in the child. When one boy could not be induced to go to kindergarten, it was found he had been threatened, when disobedient, with being sent away from home. Each time he left the house he was fearful that, owing to some ruse on his parents' part, he would never get back.

Often the fears thus aroused are not mentioned by the child. If he has been subjected to ridicule or teasing, he attempts to inhibit his fear. As a result it assumes proportions that he cannot control. One bad case of stuttering was found to be the result of persistent nagging and ridicule, which the sensitive five-year-old had no means of combating.

Ignoring or belittling a child's fears is an ineffective way to rid him of them. An eight-year-old boy who told his parents of his dislike of the shadows in his room thrown by a street light was laughed at; his parents thought that sympathizing with him would be wrong, and that raillery at the idea of so big a boy's being afraid would be effective. When, months afterward, the child began to cry out in his sleep about the shadows, his worried parents realized that an explanation of the harmless nature of the shadows should have been given him.

Extreme severity or harshness and the use of frequent severe physical punishment produce fear. It is questionable whether a child who has been made timid and shrinking by stern treatment can ever regain his

natural, open manner and successfully assert himself. If domineered over and blustered at in early childhood, he may come to expect this treatment on all sides and develop a sense of discouragement and failure, resulting in hesitation and unwillingness to tackle anything difficult.

CONSTRUCTIVE USES OF FEAR

The legitimate uses of fear are those of precaution and foresight. The individual, for example, who is merely *fearful* that his child will take diphtheria is not putting the fear to any use. Only when he takes the *precaution* of having the child given the treatment to prevent diphtheria can his fear be said to be beneficial to himself or to the race.

The parent who instills fear of automobiles into the child's mind by repeated descriptions of what automobiles may do to a child is not dealing constructively with the problem. Instead of such descriptions, which inspire fear without appropriate action, the child should have definite instructions about how to cross streets, after looking to left and right, and be shown the reason for walking calmly rather than running across a street. What training can do in the way of promoting habits of care is shown by the situation in Milwaukee, where, before the inauguration of the school police patrol, an average of thirteen school children were killed each year in traffic. Since the children have been taught to abide by the rules not a single death has occurred.

Every effort on the parent's part to give the child knowledge and understanding of the life about him will be of value. When we remember that it is the ignorant, uneducated person who is full of stupid superstitions and fears, we recognize the great need of the child, who has not had time to acquire understanding of the world he lives in, no matter how intelligent and inquisitive he may be.

OVERDEVELOPMENT OF CAUTION

Parents, especially mothers, do not always realize to what degree their acquired fears are being passed on unconsciously to their children. A mother who has been brought up without opportunities for climbing, for example, will caution "Look out! Come down! You'll fall!" when the child on the ladder or in the tree is in practically no danger and is acquiring muscular control that may be very helpful later in the face of risks. Selfish, thoughtless restrictions on the part of mothers are responsible for many timid children. Commendations for bravery and stimulation to courage should be the rule.

The mother plays a more important part than she suspects in the establishment of attitudes of fear or courage in the child. That a child is likely to acquire from his mother fears that she, unconsciously or not, shows she has, has been demonstrated; also that it is harder to rid a child of a fear likewise possessed by his mother than of one he has picked up in some other way. Her own upbringing and experiences have brought about habits of response that are so much a part of her that she has no idea how often she shows her feelings. If the mother shudders at the sight of a cat, is made giddy by height, is afraid to swim out over her depth, shows fear of lightning and thunder, her impulsive, automatic responses are noted unfailingly by the child. The effort of a mother to control her fear is not always successful in keeping strain and tension out of the atmosphere. The mother who is truly interested in bringing up children free of fear will try to eliminate fear from her own life.

But, it will be said, is it safe to leave children alone to explore and experiment? Unless a child is playing with older children who tempt him beyond what is safe for his years, he is not likely to venture too far. Climb-

ing, running, jumping, even falling, are necessary elements in the trial and error learning of children. If they are early provided with plenty of equipment — packing-boxes, boards, ladders, barrels, and the like — and left to try out their possibilities, they will learn control of their muscles and true caution. The child who is notorious for taking risks is usually one who has found great satisfaction in hearing his elders talk about him.

PREVENTION OF FEAR

How can we prevent fears, and remove them once they are established? In the first place, a young baby should be protected from violent play, undue noise, excitement, or sudden disturbances. As he grows, help him to understand the life about him. Advantage may be taken of his curiosity to further an exact knowledge in many directions. The more he knows about things the less likely he will be to fear them. If the individual can be taught to meet fear with some definite action, he does not feel the fear. Thus, stimuli that ordinarily bring fear responses in babies sometimes fail to bring results if a baby is sucking his thumb. The pleasurable feeling of the sucking outweighs the importance of the fear. When we whistle to keep our courage up, much the same thing is happening.

This principle holds good in reconditioning, or getting rid of a fear that has crept in. One of the quickest ways to rid a child of a fear is to present the feared object, or condition, in connection with a strongly pleasing stimulus. Thus, if a child has become afraid of the dark, the fear of entering a dark room can often be overcome by playing a game in which the child is sent into the room after a piece of candy, or some surprise put in a designated place. Or the child may play a blindfold game, and while he is enjoying it, the explanation of what darkness is may be given. In the case of the child

who has become afraid of dogs, the pleasant stimulus may take the form of a young puppy, whose antics are so amusing and harmless that the child soon loses the unhappy association with other dogs.

Removing the cause of the fear, assuming that putting the trouble out of sight will also put it out of mind, has not been found safe. A constructive means, such as familiarizing the child with dogs by means of a puppy, is preferable to trying to avoid dogs. Association with other children who do not have the fear often helps children. Children frequently lose some of their fears when they go to school, because of the influence of the group.

Sometimes, however, seeing that other children are unafraid causes the child to conceal his fear rather than have others find him out and tease him. This may affect the child to the extent of making him avoid the group. A marked liking for solitude is usually a symptom of unhealthiness in the child's mental life.

The largest number of children appear to develop fear in the period from three to four years. As a child's independence increases, he is constantly exposed to new situations. It is important to anticipate and prepare for his reaction to those situations that will be likely to develop fear. Early learning of the necessity for activity, either mental or physical, to afford outlet for the emotion is particularly useful in training to prevent fear. Fear of the dark may never develop, for example, in a child who has been taught from babyhood the beauty and peace of the night, who has only pleasant associations with his comfortable bed in a quiet, darkened room, and who looks forward to occasional treats when he is allowed to stay up after the sun has gone down, with appreciation of the fact that this is the only time he can study the stars, or listen to the night birds. By building up a positive reaction to such a condition

as "the dark," we may forestall the probability of a chance association of fear.

PLEASURE, OR RUDIMENTS OF AFFECTION

The simple pleasurable emotion that is later to develop into love or affection is stimulated at first by stroking or caressing a baby's body. Certain parts of the skin surface are particularly sensitive to stimulation by touch. These sensitive or erogenous zones, as they are called, include more especially those parts of the body where the outer skin surface and the delicate inner mucous membranes come together—such as the skin about the mouth. From the first, these sensitive areas are the source of feelings of pleasure and satisfaction to a child. His first pleasure comes by way of his mouth; the sucking movement by which he gets his food brings him a sense of ease and comfort and he gradually comes to depend more and more on sucking to afford him delight. The same is true in an unspecialized way of the feeling of ease that pervades the infant when he has urinated or had a movement of the bowels. He is relieved of the pressure that caused him a vague uneasiness, and any relief from strain resolves itself into pleasure.

In these small beginnings the pleasurable experiences of the child have their source. The patting, cuddling, and caressing of the baby—which is the adult's way of seeking a pleasurable emotion for himself in his contacts with the child—by degrees come to have a meaning to the child. The pleasant sensations come to be connected with certain individuals, and the child soon smiles on the mother or nurse whose gentle touch has aroused feelings in which lie the rudiments of the individual's affection.

A child's emotions grow as he develops mentally. He does not, or should not, long remain at the stage where

sucking his thumb affords him delight. If he has companions, a doll, or a dog on which to expend his growing affectionate impulses, he will be less likely to have recourse to habits of babyhood to bring him satisfaction. Any regression to habits of babyhood, such as thumb sucking, or wetting the clothes by day or night in a child who has been completely trained, necessitates inquiry into the child's emotional life, which may show deficiencies that the child is unconsciously trying to meet by these subterfuges.

The wise parent will endeavor to develop his children's affections along normal lines that will bring the most contentment, and not cause them to be a source of unhappiness to others.

The mother naturally becomes the first object of a child's affections, since it is her care that surrounds him and makes possible any feelings of pleasure. She must use care not to exert too powerful an influence over the growth of his affections. Being constantly with a child, sleeping with him, protecting him from every bump or fall, is not kindness to the developing individual; though it is hard for the mother, whose love for and dependence on the baby is increasing at a rapid rate, to realize that such anxious care is not always to the child's future interest.

Ignorance of and indifference toward a child's need of love is just as disastrous, but is a less insidious form of trouble than the overdependence brought about as a result of too great a display of affection.

JEALOUSY

One of the distressing morbid manifestations of affection is jealousy. Jealousy is probably manifested by every one at some time or other. But whether or not it shall be permanent and have a large share in determining a person's reactions throughout life will depend to

a great extent on the gradual and easy transition by which a child loses his infantile expectations of all-enveloping love, and comes to take his place as a giver as well as a recipient of affection. Adjustments to prevent unhappiness from too great dependence on one individual for affection should begin during early childhood, as surely as training to prevent useless fear or destructive anger.

A frequent cause for jealousy in a young child is the arrival of a new baby in the family. If he is unprepared, jealousy is a very natural result of his suddenly and unexpectedly being asked to share the affection which hitherto has been his alone. The commotion over the new baby commonly confuses the child, and he is thrust aside, with a decided lessening of the attention to which he has been accustomed. As young children are almost invariably interested in babies, it is necessary only to take them into one's confidence before the birth of the new baby to arouse in them the keenest interest in the new brother or sister. If they have a share in the plans for the baby, any help they render brings out the generosity which should be fostered. If a new baby comes while the older one is still a baby, especial care should be taken that the older one, around whom everything has revolved hitherto, gets some unusual attention. Again, there is great likelihood of jealousy if a boy or girl has been an only child for four or five years, so that his emotional habits with regard to his parents are firmly fixed. It is a hard wrench for a child long habituated to being first in everything to find that he must suddenly share his home with a newcomer.

While parents cannot treat any two children exactly alike, because each child's innate personality differences arouse subtle shades of feeling and response in us, we can try to understand each one in such a way as to provide for his special needs. The expressions of affec-

tion craved by each will vary, one child responding favorably to being considered grown-up, another wanting many demonstrations of love. A third may be relatively uninterested in caresses or praise, but hanker after such attentions as being talked to or read to. A little boy who was rough almost to the point of brutality with his younger brothers changed perceptibly when his mother set aside a brief period each day for his enjoyment of her society alone. His seemingly mean behavior was an unconscious way of getting revenge for always having to share her with the helpless babies.

A mother was perplexed as to how she might have prevented jealousy in a thirteen-month-old girl, too young to understand the coming of the new baby. It was found that when the baby was born he had usurped the older child's place in her mother's bed, where she had slept from infancy. The mother had not connected this with the child's hatred of the brother.

A cause of jealousy in children that is sometimes made light of is the display of affection by parents toward one another or toward outsiders. To see the child push the father away from the mother or try to push another child from the mother's lap is often considered amusing and the behavior purposely provoked.

Unwise praise or comment from visitors or relatives is responsible for jealous brooding in some children. Outsiders cannot be entirely educated out of favoritism, but the mother must have a constructive plan to offset possible harm. She must take pains to remark merits in the ignored child that may not be quite so obvious as another's curly hair or beautiful eyes.

Jealousy sometimes arises from the mother's well-meant praise of one child in the hope that others in the family will emulate the desirable conduct. More often than not it has the effect of making the children jealous instead of stimulating effort toward better conduct.

Sometimes discouragement and jealousy are the result of expecting too much of one member of the family. It is hard to remember that age and size are not always indicative of what may be asked in the way of behavior; it is likewise hard to know what may be expected normally of children at different ages. The eldest in a family, though often very little advanced in powers or experience beyond the other children, is habitually expected to use discretion and judgment far beyond his years. Sometimes parents do not discover until too late the antagonisms and resentments that have grown up through this treatment. "You don't make brother do this! You don't expect him to remember!" is a cry often unheeded.

Parents are sometimes pained and reproachful when their children fail to exhibit kind and generous behavior toward other children. The original sin attributed to children is only natural, uninhibited conduct. To a child of two, who is just realizing himself as an individual, his possessions—anything he can lay hands on to grasp, wield, push, or throw—are peculiarly a part of him. Yet people often ask a child of from eighteen months to five years to share his belongings, with no previous explanation or training.

As soon as children are old enough to run about, they must be taught to play together, to share their playthings, and to respect the rights of others. But it is unreasonable to expect a child who has always played alone suddenly to hand over with good grace, when a small visitor comes, the toys which have been his exclusive property. One mother always took pains to prepare her child for the coming of a guest, talking over which toys the guest would particularly enjoy. The child, entering into the play, took great delight in sharing toys he might have clutched selfishly had he not been given the opportunity to cooperate.

When children in a family have trouble over toys, it is important not to risk an unfair decision. If interference must take place it is safer to deprive both of the toy or of the privilege of playing together, because of the almost unavoidable, unconscious inclination of the mother to discriminate in favor of one child. As a general rule the interference of the parent means antagonism built up somewhere. It is as bad for a younger child to be favored continually as it is for an older one to store up jealous feelings for the younger.

A child who feels himself habitually slighted may become more and more self-centered, turning inward until he loses contact with the world. Equally to be pitied is the child who strives to make up to himself, for what he considers to be unfair treatment, by over-aggressiveness and self-assertion — these in turn making him so obnoxious as to constitute a real cause for favoritism toward the other child.

To remove possible causes of jealousy is the best preventive. Avoid situations that give a child the feeling of inferiority which awakens jealousy. To learn to share, to take one's turn, to respect the property of others, are all important factors in the young child's learning.

ANGER

Of the many stimuli that later on will prove adequate to arouse anger, comparatively few are present in a baby's life. For the infant, bodily restraint is virtually the only stimulus that is present. But as the days go on, he begins gradually to become aware of psychological and social restraints, as well as physical interference. Besides having his bodily movements restrained, he will be hampered in carrying out his desires, and will find that there are rules of behavior he must follow if he is to get along happily with others.

Many of a child's outbursts will be occasioned by his



Baby sister is cherished because she's his baby too.

Reproduced by courtesy of Margaret Bonine Fox.



*Yoo-hoo, Skinny! A first step in learning
to feel unafraid in the water.*

Reproduced by courtesy of H. Armstrong Roberts.

objection to routine physical habits—going to the toilet, going to bed, being washed and dressed—or the dismay arising from having his regular routine interfered with. Others will be caused by a child's will coming into conflict with that of someone who has authority over him—being told he must not touch this or must not go there, and being punished for disobedience to such orders.

When a child wants help in doing a thing and it is refused him, or when he prefers to try to do something alone and help is thrust upon him, anger is likely to be aroused. Desired for attention causes outbursts of temper very early; even a small baby will sometimes object when his mother puts him in bed and walks out of the room. Another frequent cause of anger in the baby or young child is his inability to make his wants understood.

Anger arising from association with other children is to be expected. Unwillingness to share their toys, disagreements over how to play, constitute a large share of the anger stimuli when children get old enough to be with other children a good deal. Such outbursts, while violent, are of much shorter duration than tantrums having to do with sleeping and eating.

Study of these stimuli suggests the desirability of establishing as simple and orderly a routine as possible, one in which a child is subject to few interferences other than those absolutely essential to his physical welfare. The idea is not to make it easy for a child to have things his own way, but to avoid the occurrence, while he is still in the throes of learning how to deal with each new situation, of so many upsetting circumstances that he will be in danger of forming poor habits of reaction to obstacles in his path.

We know that the presence of anger indicates helplessness, and an inability to respond automatically in

the face of a dilemma. A child who is surrounded by relatively calm, stable adults will be confronted by far fewer confusing situations than one who is subjected to the vagaries of temperamental, excitable grownups. When his drumming on the piano goes unnoticed one day but is stopped arbitrarily on the next, because of someone's "nerves," the child who is asked to make such sudden and inexplicable adjustments is likely to be completely bewildered.

As the child develops a more and more distinct personality, collisions are bound to occur between him and his parents. The fewer the clashes of will, the less is the danger of futile, angry behavior's becoming habitual. With rage, as with fear, we do not want to educate anger out of a child, but to show him how to limit his anger to appropriate occasions. Anger, like most of our unlearned behavior, is a good servant but a bad master. If we teach children to express justifiable anger in action, we can help them not to feel angry except under circumstances where anger is useful.

Emotion, as we have seen, speeds up some of the bodily activities and retards others. In anger a child has an increase in energy which must be got rid of in some way. He screams or cries, kicks, or throws his arms about; the older child may shout, "call names," or strike someone. If he does not get rid of his emotion through action, the child suffers from inhibiting the natural outburst. The child who is pointed out with pride by his mother as never having had a temper tantrum may be resorting to less healthy outlets for his emotions.

The idea that to "break the child's will" is the only way to help him has given way to a realization that damming up an emotion with barriers does not check it, but only turns it aside into other channels, or causes a troublesome overflow later.

WHEN AND WHY ANGER APPEARS

A child's age will tell us something about what we may expect in the way of anger. Thus, children between the ages of one and two display more anger than before or after that time. It is not hard to guess that this is at least in part the result of their comparative helplessness; they cannot even make their needs and wants understood. But to a surprising degree the anger manifestations of young children are quickly over and done with. Not only are the flare-ups brief, but they seem to leave no clouds on the child's horizon. As children grow older their anger is less violent and explosive, but they show a tendency to resentful after-effects and retaliation lasting over a longer period. The actual length of the outbursts does not change much from one year to another; over two-thirds of 1,878 observed outbursts, in children from seven months to eight years of age, lasted less than five minutes.

In a study in which forty-five mothers kept records of their children's anger manifestations over periods ranging up to three months, the time of day at which the greatest number of outbursts occurred proved to be a finding of much interest. The accompanying figure shows that outbursts are much more frequent just before noon and before supper-time, indicating that hunger and fatigue are responsible for a large proportion of emotional upsets. Adults will be quick to realize that they themselves, being also the victims of hunger and fatigue at these times, are readier to react to children's fretfulness and disobedience.

Illness, even a slight cold, or constipation, accentuates a child's liability to anger; the presence of guests in the home or the excitement due to visits away from home also increases his readiness to fly off the handle. The more adults there are in the home, each with his

own point of view and training methods, the greater the frequency of anger.

It will be noted that in most of these situations both internal and external factors predisposing a child to emotion are present. If a child is tired he is more likely to explode if his mother tries, because of her own ex-

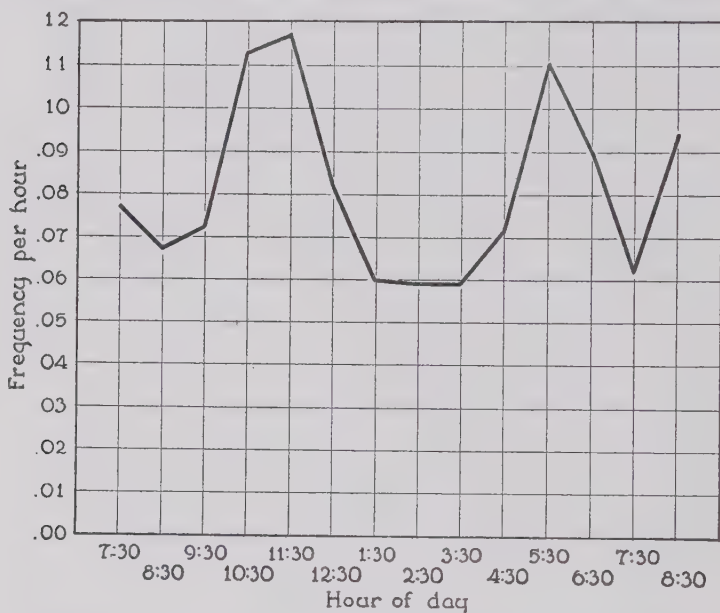


Figure 5. Variations in frequency of anger outbursts during the daytime (Goodenough).

haustion, to hurry him into his bed. If he is internally stimulated by pain or hunger, he will be more easily set off by the external stimuli provided by the teasing of his brother than if he is in a happy and comfortable frame of mind. We can reduce the frequency of anger manifestations by taking good physical care of a child and reducing the complexity of the external situation that surrounds him.

Temper tantrums often occur in children in whom a physical defect has gone unremedied — where some constant irritation such as faulty teeth or poor eyesight is unnoticed. Sometimes the feeding, sleeping, and eliminative habits of the child must be changed before the tantrums disappear.

Very frequently it is the parent who is to blame for the child's lack of emotional control. Are the parents' emotional habits stable and consistent? Or is the child, having learned that sometimes one parent gives in, on the alert to use any means, fair or foul, to get the desired attention?

He may have begun his learning in this direction as a tiny baby, when he discovered perhaps that holding his breath brought him the desired attention. Young mothers seldom realize that the baby who habitually holds his breath is in no danger but is indulging in the performance because he has by chance hit upon the fact that it works. He has been taken up, soothed, and caressed, and so repeats the trick as a means of getting this pleasant attention. Sometimes actual paroxysms of coughing, originating during whooping cough, continue afterward in the form of breath-holding tantrums, because the child has found a way of securing attention. Children who have undergone illness of some length or severity are somewhat more inclined to temper explosions than those who have not, probably because they have been allowed to have their own way while they were sick.

Once the cause has been discovered, the method of treatment must be worked out according to the individual child. If the trouble is physical, more heed must be given to the child's bodily habits. If he is irritable, he must have more rest. Markedly pettish children may respond well when required to take two fifteen-minute rests, before dinner and supper. If the tantrums arise

merely to secure attention, ignoring them will cut them short. Ignoring them may take the form of walking off and leaving a child, of setting him on a chair, or of putting him in a room alone to cool down. The last procedure is effective where there are other young children in the family who have not the ability to ignore the attention-getting antics. As in other kinds of learning, no habit will be formed if no satisfaction is derived from the practice.

The older child, with whom we can reason, should be encouraged to undertake some more or less violent activity to work off his pent-up energy; for the presence of emotion indicates a heightening and quickening of energies, a preparation by the organism for actively coming to grips with a difficulty, whatever it may be. A person who is mildly angry can work harder, a child who is a little bit afraid can run faster than he would otherwise be able to do. Very acute emotion, however, hinders rather than helps.

In seeking to change poor emotional habits it is necessary to remember that they have become established over a considerable period of time. Parents asking for help in retraining a child who has undesirable habits are often dissatisfied because the suggestions given do not work instantly. Any program involving change from a habit of long standing must be consistently adhered to for weeks, perhaps months, before the desired change will be brought about.

More than anything else, furnishing a simple, orderly environment for children will prevent manifestations of temper. They should play with children of their own age rather than alone or with adults. Constant association with adults puts a strain on the child that parents do not realize. Too often adults do not present the best type of behavior for the child to copy. If the discipline of parents is nagging or inconsistent, if the parents give

way to outbursts of anger, what can we expect of the child? In the anger study carried on by the Institute of Child Welfare it was found that those children whose mothers subjected them to inconsistent, unreasonable methods of discipline had about twice as many temper tantrums as the children whose mothers carried out their disciplinary procedures in a more judicious way.

Every child should be encouraged to develop an active attitude when faced with an unsolved situation. Anger energizes the individual to fight his way out of difficult problems. Children should be taught to face problems intelligently: to know when to resent the behavior of others, when to cooperate, and when to show leadership.

QUESTIONS

1. The grandparents of Bobby and Betty pay much more attention to Betty, who is very friendly and sociable, than they do to Bobby, who is shy. What, if anything, would you try to do in this case?
2. How would you go about changing the behavior of a child who is habitually petulant and cranky at five or six o'clock at night?
3. Should a little girl be encouraged to permit and enjoy caresses from any relative or friend of the family?
4. A child of four becomes hysterical if she must have a doctor's examination. How would you forestall a possible like occurrence in a younger child?
5. Two-year-old Ray bangs his head on the floor and screams for a long time when his will is crossed. What tactics do you think should be used with him?

Chapter 8

EATING HABITS

"Stay downtown and have lunch with me," urged a young woman when she met a friend shopping.

"I'd love to, but I must get home to nurse the baby at two," explained the other.

"Oh, let him wait half an hour! He won't starve. Or maybe he won't even wake up."

The young mother looked shocked. "I'm not going to risk having his sleeping and eating hours disturbed," she replied. "I've never had any trouble, and I don't want to have a cranky baby who's crying for food at all hours, because I have been careless."

So much depends on the establishment of regularity in the child's routine that it is almost impossible to overemphasize the need of careful planning in the first few weeks of the baby's life. When the mother is still weak and tires easily, she may fall into the habit, through lack of control, of picking the baby up whenever he cries, or of feeding him irregularly. If a definite schedule of feeding and sleeping hours is scrupulously adhered to, the baby will be calmer, will sleep longer at a time, and will have both a better disposition and a better digestion, because of his peaceful, regular start in life. Especially in the matter of feeding is it desirable to keep to the approved hours. Changes in schedule which seem convenient at the moment may set up a habit difficult to change, even if practiced on only a few occasions.

IMPORTANCE OF TRANSITION TO GENERAL DIET

The time when the mother begins to introduce solid foods into the child's diet is of great importance for later habits of eating. If each new food is presented

with confidence, only a very small amount being given the first time, the baby's attitude toward food will be more readily set in the right direction. The mother must at this time sincerely expect that the baby will eat whatever is given him. Much of a child's unwillingness even to try new foods later on may be traced back to these determining occasions. If the baby spits out the cereal or vegetable when first presented, it is not necessarily because he dislikes it but only because of the novelty of flavor and texture. Children have less objection to warmth or coldness of food than to the strange consistency of new articles of diet.

After months of liquid diet, which requires only to be sucked and swallowed, the child is suddenly introduced to a new food. To suck it is all he knows how to do, and as often as not that sucking movement expels the food from his mouth. This is taken by the inexperienced mother to indicate that he does not like the food, and it is removed. Every time the situation is met in this way, it becomes more difficult to introduce a new food.

New articles of diet should be introduced when a child's appetite is keenest. A very small amount of the new food should be served the first day, early in the meal. It may be given along with, or just before, some very well-liked food. It is essential that the child form no unpleasant association with the new food in the beginning, even if, on the first few occasions, he eats only a teaspoonful. Trying to eat a new food when overtired or when the customary amount of exercise has not been taken sometimes results in a definite dislike which persists for years.

It is often necessary to withhold a child's milk, meat, or other favorite food until the less desired article is out of the way. Dessert should as a matter of course not be given until the child has eaten the variety of other foods

that the mother considers necessary. The mother who complains that "Tommy wouldn't eat a bite of supper tonight because he found out we were to have ice cream for dessert" is admitting her bad practice. A matter-of-fact attitude on the mother's part has much to do with the child's acceptance of whatever foods are given him. Overanxiety and eagerness often defeat a mother's efforts to establish good habits.

As soon as the baby displays an interest in feeding himself, at nine months or so, he should be allowed to have a spoon and begin to assist in the process. As he learns, he may be allowed to feed himself the first part of the meal, the mother helping to see that he gets the required amount. Even at the expense of spilling, the child's desire to do for himself must be taken advantage of at the moment when it appears, lest he fall into the habit of expecting to be fed. This is an occasion to let the baby profit by the errors in his trial and error learning.

AIDS TO CONTINUANCE OF GOOD HABITS

The careful, tasteful preparation of food is important in helping to form good eating habits. This does not mean that the taste of the child should be catered to, nor that he should be encouraged in finicky habits, but that the food should be wholesomely and attractively served, with the same degree of care that is given in serving a meal to adults. The best of appetites must not be put to the test of lumpy cereal, or soggy, poorly seasoned vegetables. Vegetables, for example, cooked quickly in as little water as possible, retain much of their flavor. Care in serving is illustrated by spinach, which is more appetizing and easier to eat when cut fine and sprinkled with the yolk of a hard-cooked egg.

Children sometimes become bored with the monotony of foods served and lose appetite in consequence. From

infancy the child should be accustomed to the flavor of new vegetables as frequently as they may be added to his diet. Long gaps between serving seasonal vegetables are undesirable, as the child often must learn over again to like them. For this reason, canned asparagus may occasionally be served, even if fresh asparagus is available. Variety in cereals served is essential to a continued liking for cereals beyond babyhood. A bland cereal, too much refined, may easily become distasteful to the baby who has it twice a day.

In addition to using four or five different cereals, a number of ways of varying the daily cereal will occur to the mother: such as sprinkling the hot cereal with shredded coconut, or with a favorite dry cereal; adding raisins, figs, or dates to the cereal when nearly cooked; using cereal in breads and cookies; or serving it with brown sugar and butter in place of milk.

In our care to keep the diet of the child simple, it is easy to make the mistake of serving too often a few foods that we know are well liked and that are easy to get. Although we occasionally hear of a child who has contentedly eaten carrots or peas every day for several years, such a child must later make the adjustment to a variety of foods with greater difficulty.

Insistence on a varied diet does not mean that the child should be allowed to eat highly spiced or flavored adult foods.

The question of how early the child should eat at the family table is one that must be answered differently in different family situations. Giving children their meals alone, before the family eats, obviates several difficulties. Not only is it easier to limit the diet to simple things, but there is less likelihood of distraction by conversation. A child who does not customarily eat at the family table does not form the habit of asking for tastes of forbidden food. Once he appears at the table, it is hard

to refuse his pleas for the attractive things which he sees his elders eating.

To the busy mother who prepares and serves the meals herself, serving the children separately may seem to represent additional work. A trial sometimes convinces that in reality this system simplifies rather than complicates matters. Young children, up to the age of two and one-half or three years, may eat at a small table while the meal is being prepared. Children who are accustomed to this plan will play in another room after their meal (provided it is not their nap or bedtime) and leave the mother free to enjoy her own meal. It is difficult for a mother who must supervise the feeding of young children to have the quiet and relaxation she needs at mealtime.

The objection is sometimes raised that serving the children early makes the preparation of two meals necessary. But we find so many foods which the child should not eat appearing on the family table that it is usually necessary to withhold some foods from him or plan somewhat different combinations for him, since fried meats, highly flavored sauces, foods in which there are cooked fats, such as cake, pie, or doughnuts, must be excluded from a child's diet. The child whose appetite is tempted with such foods very often loses his desire for the plain foods that should comprise his meals.

To secure results, the mother must be confident of cooperation. If she approaches the child timidly, the child will sense her fearful attitude and live up to what is expected of him. If the child refuses to eat, despite the mother's expectant attitude, his plate should be removed without discussion and no food of any kind given until the next meal hour. This requires courage on the part of the mother and cooperation from family and neighbors.

REQUIREMENTS FOR GOOD APPETITE

Once favorable eating habits are established, there are several points to be kept in mind if such habits are to continue. First in importance is an abundance of exercise and fresh air. The young baby should have a time to kick and stretch unclothed, and should sleep during the day either on a sheltered porch or in a room with two or more windows open. The older child, to be hungry, must have from one to three hours of active exercise in the open air, depending on the weather. The baby from fifteen months to two years of age is difficult to provide for, as he is too helpless and lacking in dexterity to know how to play much outside. It requires special effort on the mother's part to take him for short walks (rather than carriage rides, which give him no active exercise) or to furnish play apparatus that will keep him active in cold weather.

The older child must have romping, active play if he is to be hungry. A child may be trained gradually to stay outside alone for a lengthening period of time only if he has plenty to occupy his mind and his muscles. A dog, a slide, kiddie-kar or velocipede, boxes on which to climb, shovel and broom, bricks, slabs or boards with which to build houses, are some of the requisites if the child is expected to play outside. Companions are of course desirable; if there are none, a greater variety of play equipment must be provided.

The atmosphere at mealtime should be happy and cheerful. Haste, confusion, and worry interfere with the digestive process. Limit the conversation to pleasant topics and avoid constant pressure on young children to live up to adult standards of table behavior. It is far more important that the child should have a happy attitude towards his meals than that he should hold his fork in a prescribed manner or never speak with his

mouth full. Many feeding problems are connected with the unpleasant associations children have formed at mealtimes. Expect the children to stay at the table a definite time, from twenty to thirty minutes, so that they will not be tempted to eat scantily or hurriedly.

Members of the family must avoid expression of likes and dislikes. Children sometimes eat everything that is given them until they begin to eat with the family, when they are quick to copy father, who objects to all soups, or mother, who "cannot" drink milk. The family's enthusiasm over meals may be imitated as readily. Freedom from strain and hurry, calmness and pleasantness on the part of the adults, will have much to do with furthering good eating habits in the child.

PROBLEMS

General indifference or resistance to food is in many cases a problem created by an overanxious mother. So eager has she been to follow to the letter directions as to calories and vitamins that she has succeeded in taking away her child's appetite.

Often the first attack of non-hunger, no matter what the reason, is a signal for worry and distress on the mother's part. A reduction of diet, and no urging or forcing, should be the rule. A doctor's experiment, carried on with a group of children who, from babyhood, had not been forced to eat, showed that 170 of the 199 cases ate well and that none of the children with poor appetites were underweight except those suffering from some chronic disease.

As a matter of fact, an acute illness, such as a common cold, often initiates this problem, and the anxiety of the mother gives it impetus. Lack of appetite is often the first symptom of a cold or other illness. Instead of recognizing this probability the mother urges her

child to eat. Associations arising in his mind from food in connection with the unpleasant feelings of illness cause the undesirable attitude toward food to persist after the illness is cleared up.

Decayed teeth, enlarged and infected tonsils, with the resulting spread of poisons in the blood stream, may be responsible for non-hunger, or anorexia. Improper breathing due to enlarged adenoids leaves a bad taste in the mouth and lessens the desire for food. A diet too rich in one element, such as sugar or fat, may be the cause. Cookies or milk between meals decreases the likelihood of the child's eating at the next meal. Sweets particularly have the effect of temporarily satisfying hunger, without furnishing bulk or staying qualities.

The lunch of bread and butter or fruit, given in the middle of the morning or after school to the hungry child who eats well at meals, is not frowned upon. A child who has a hearty appetite and eats whatever is placed before him at meals should be his own judge of what he requires besides. The growing child who plays and works actively is using up much fuel and must have more in proportion to his size than an adult, whose food goes to maintenance and activity only.

Children are sometimes too tired to eat. A rest of fifteen minutes often makes them attack their food with zest. If the rest periods are to be successful they must be pleasurable to the child rather than distasteful, a problem that will tax the mother's ingenuity. Sometimes the child is not hungry because he has not had opportunity for air and exercise since his last meal.

The child who is allowed up late at night rarely shows interest in his breakfast. Regular hours are of immense importance here; for the child who sleeps late in the morning and eats his breakfast at nine or ten o'clock is in turn not hungry for his noon meal—which for

young children should be the main one of the day. Sometimes a little outdoor exercise before breakfast stimulates an appetite.

Perhaps the habit of slow eating is contributing to the problem. The mother's irritation has the effect of adding to instead of lessening the trouble. Children have many things to do which interest them more than eating. We must not expect them to show delight at the prospect of sitting still for half an hour, unless the associations they have formed with mealtime are favorable. *Urging should never be resorted to.* The temptation to coax and urge, if given way to, will sink the mother in a morass of trouble. Having an alarm set to go off in twenty or thirty minutes sometimes helps the slow child. Then, if he has not finished, his plate should be removed, and *no food* given until the next meal.

Talking about a child at mealtime gives him attention, which every child enjoys. If by refusing to eat he can get the mother to feed him, it means even more attention. A casual, matter-of-fact attitude must be exhibited if it becomes evident that a child is playing for notice.

Sometimes the trouble lies in overstimulation. The absorbing talk of adults or the antics of other children in the family make it hard for the offender to put his mind on eating. One four-year-old ate well when alone with his mother but hardly swallowed a bite at the meals when his father and two young uncles, much engrossed in talk of sports, were at home.

SUGGESTIONS TO KEEP IN MIND

1. Serve three meals a day at the same hour every day. Irregularity in serving meals encourages a child to eat between meals.

2. Mealtime should be a happy time. The talk should include some topics of interest to children. The dinner table

is not the place to discuss unpleasant or shocking topics that appear in the daily papers.

3. Children are quick to imitate parents or older children in the family. We cannot expect children to eat things that we refuse. Example: A mother whose boy was thin and pale could not get him to eat spinach or dark breads after he came to the family table. He was found to be imitating his father, who refused these foods.

4. Sometimes a variation in the preparation of the food helps. If the child is not fond of milk to drink, it is well to see that he gets it in other forms — soups, puddings, and custards. Cereals may be cooked in milk, in place of water. If allowed to serve himself from a small pitcher, a child often drinks more than when he sees a large glass of milk before him. If he becomes bored with certain things that are served frequently, try omitting them from the diet for a short time.

5. Discouraging and odious comparisons with other children in the family should be avoided. Constant comment on a child who is a "good eater" may further the undesirable habits.

6. Above all, remember that irritation and anxiety further undesirable habits. *The calm, placid mother who provides the right food and expects her children to eat is seldom troubled with eating problems.* Children sometimes enjoy the stimulation and excitement caused by an exasperated parent. Just as a runabout child is exhilarated by being chased when he has been asked to come to the mother, so children sometimes find delight in creating a stir and drawing attention to themselves by not eating.

Following are suggestions from leaflets of the Minneapolis Community Health Service which may help in getting children to like vegetables, milk, cereals.

CEREALS

Start with a very small amount.

Serve a variety, keeping five or six kinds on hand.

Sprinkle cooked cereal with a favorite dry cereal, with popcorn, or coconut.

Add raisins, figs, or dates to the cereal when nearly cooked.

Use cereal in breads and cookies.

Serve with brown sugar and butter in place of milk.

Serve cereal for supper instead of for breakfast occasionally.

VEGETABLES

Plan new ways of serving much-used vegetables.

Combine several—a new vegetable with ones the child likes.

Vegetable cream soups, such as spinach, tomato, pea, or cauliflower.

Vegetable salads with plain dressings of oil and lemon juice, or a cooked dressing made with lemon juice.

Add vegetables to meat loaf.

Raw chopped vegetables in gelatin.

MILK

Provide straws.

Give child small pitcher and glass.

Flavor milk with unboiled cocoa or vanilla.

Color milk with vegetable coloring.

A measuring cup makes a game of milk drinking.

Plan to use milk in a greater variety of ways: soups; creamed dishes; to cook cereals in; drinks—egg-nog and cocoa; custards, junkets, ice cream.

QUESTIONS

1. What behavior in a child of three would lead you to serve him his meals away from the family table?
2. Suggest three possible causes for poor appetite in a young child.
3. Twelve-year-old Ted wants to eat something before he goes to bed each night. Under what conditions would you let him do this?
4. Polly, aged six, is so excited about getting off to school each morning that she eats hardly anything for breakfast. Suggest how this situation might be changed.
5. Under what conditions might a new article of food be introduced on a rainy day?
6. Although in the past milk has been one of four-year-old Eileen's favorite foods, she has recently begun to refuse it. What would you do if you were her mother?

Chapter 9

SLEEPING HABITS

The intelligent parent uses all the means that lie in his power to make his child an adaptable individual, able to fit into his environment and assume the tasks that come his way. There is one phase of the child's development where the parent, rich or poor, has a comparatively free hand. Narrow circumstances may limit the variety and amount of the child's diet, but giving him adequate sleep and rest is consistent with small means.

Food and rest are two indispensable needs of the growing organism. Nothing can better promote a child's readiness for making good responses to the demands of his environment than regular and sufficient sleep. All living things need rest, and during those years when growth is going on, it is safer to err on the side of providing more than adequate rest and relaxation than to risk the possibility of fatigue and nervous exhaustion later.

AMOUNT OF SLEEP

The newborn baby sleeps most of the time. For six weeks or two months his waking time is limited practically to the hours when he is fed and bathed. His growth—most rapid at this time—depends in part on the large proportion of time that he spends in quiet and solitude. No one would think of denying a baby all the sleep he can use. But we often do exactly that, the moment babyhood is left behind, by creating situations which make it easy for him to remain awake.

As long as a child is growing he needs more sleep than an adult. The same thing holds true here as in the case of food; a child must eat more than an adult, proportionately, because he must provide not only for

maintenance and activity but for growth as well. This is shown by the fact that the amount of sleep taken by children grows less as they become older.

Although interesting and valuable studies have been made of the sleep of school children, less has been done on the sleep of very young children. In spite of the absence of such studies, standards for the sleep of young children have been published by various authorities, to the bewilderment and confusion of parents who seek information.

In order to meet this need the Institute of Child Welfare of the University of Minnesota, with the cooperation of over a thousand mothers in all sections of the state, undertook a study of sleep in young children. Each mother, four times during the year, filled out a report giving details of her child's sleep for a period of one week. The outstanding result of this study is the discovery that most of the recommendations made with reference to sleep are in excess of the actual amount of sleep taken. This may indicate either that standards set in the past have been too high or that Minnesota children, as a whole, have been getting too little sleep. In view of other evidence available we are inclined to the first viewpoint, and are publishing herewith the standards as determined by this study, believing that results based on actual observation are superior to generalizations not based upon recorded facts. The figures presented in this chapter, in general, are averages based upon the results obtained with more than a thousand children. It should be remembered always that there is considerable variation in individual children, and that even within the same family one child may consistently sleep more or less than another.

In the following table there are presented the results obtained for the total amount of sleep within a twenty-four-hour period; that is, the night sleep plus the naps

or day sleep. The first two columns of figures show the average amount of sleep taken by children at these ages and the second two columns show the point at which the sleep of the lowest 25 per cent of the children begins to decrease. A child who sleeps less than the amount given in the last two columns is getting less sleep than three-fourths of the children reported in this study.

TABLE 1. TOTAL SLEEP OF CHILDREN AT DIFFERENT AGES

AGE	AVERAGE AMOUNT TAKEN		GREATEST AMOUNT TAKEN AMONG THE 25 PER CENT HAVING LEAST SLEEP	
	HOURS	MINUTES	HOURS	MINUTES
Before one year.....	14	45	13	54
One year	13	14	12	39
Two years	12	43	12	11
Three years	12	07	11	37
Four years	11	43	11	13
Five years	11	18	10	51
Six years	11	04	10	40
Seven years	10	58	10	34

The practical recommendation to be made is that a mother whose child is sleeping less than the figures presented in the last two columns of this table should carefully investigate, with the idea of improvement, the conditions under which the child is sleeping, and further, that any mother whose child is sleeping less than the average amount, represented by the first two columns, ought to become interested in the problem of sleep.

One interesting fact that stands out quite clearly is that the amount of sleep taken decreases fairly rapidly with age. This decrease is, to a very large degree, the result of a lessening of the amount of time spent in napping and sleeping during the day. Children at all ages between one year and seven years sleep very close to eleven hours per night. This is graphically shown in Figure 6.

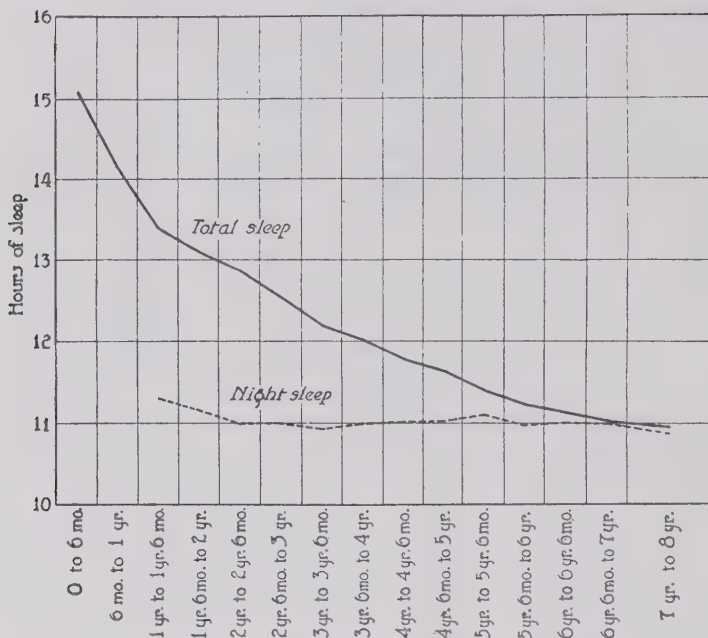


Figure 6. Comparison of total sleep and night sleep.

It was possible to study the effect of the seasons on sleep. Table 1 presents the averages for the whole year. In the fall the average child sleeps four minutes more and in the winter fifteen minutes more than shown by the figures in this table, while in the spring the average child sleeps three minutes less and in the summer sixteen minutes less than the figures given.

In studying the factors that affect sleep, definite account was taken of the time at which the child went to bed. In Table 2 there are reproduced the results of this study, showing the average bedtime for children at various ages, and the bedtime which separates the lowest 25 per cent of children from the remainder of the children.

It should be clear from this table that there is considerable variation in the time of going to bed, and that any mother whose child falls in the lowest 25 per cent of children at that age should study the sleeping conditions of her child. The importance of early bedtime cannot be overemphasized. There is much evidence, from a consideration of bedtime in connection with the

TABLE 2. BEDTIME OF CHILDREN AT DIFFERENT AGES

AGE	AVERAGE BEDTIME OF THE CHILDREN	EARLIEST BEDTIME AMONG THE 25 PER CENT OF CHILDREN HAVING LEAST SLEEP
Below one year.....	7:05	7:41
One year	7:24	7:56
Two years	7:48	8:15
Three years	7:52	8:15
Four years	7:53	8:17
Five years	7:55	8:19
Six years	7:59	8:22
Seven years	8:10	8:33

time of waking, that children who go to bed late do not make up the time lost by sleeping late in the morning. While the mother who puts her child to bed at ten o'clock may find that he awakens a half-hour later in the morning, she will not find that he awakens two hours later in the morning. If the sleeping habits of children are to be modified, the most practicable procedure is to put them to bed earlier in the evening.

One interesting relationship which stands out in this investigation is that the higher the education of the mother the earlier she puts her children to bed and the longer the children sleep. In other words, the better educated and the more intelligent mothers in the community provide better sleeping conditions for their children and put them to bed at an earlier hour.

Many mothers are perturbed over the fact that it takes their children a considerable amount of time to

go to sleep after they go to bed. Apparently they expect children to fall asleep almost immediately. A special study was made of the length of time it took children to go to sleep. The results are very striking, both for afternoon nap and night sleep, and show that the average child takes twenty minutes to go to sleep. This figure is fairly constant for all ages. It leads us to suspect that some of the difficulties which parents face in connection with the sleeping habits of their children arise from too great an expectancy of immediate sleep. It takes time for a child to calm down, particularly when he has been playing hard or has been taken away from some engrossing activity. More patience should be shown by parents.

One of the most interesting facts that come out of the whole study on the sleep of young children is the clear demonstration of a difference in the amount of sleep taken by country and city children. At all seasons and at all ages country children get less sleep than do city children, the difference varying somewhat with season, but being in the neighborhood of twenty minutes a night. An explanation which has been offered is that country children tend to go to bed with the family to a much greater extent than do city children, and hence go to bed somewhat later. A study of the bedtime of country and city children shows that this is true. The most striking differences are shown in the spring. During this season country children both go to bed later and get up much earlier than do city children.

CONDITIONS FOR SLEEP

To a great extent our habits of sleep are a result of experience and training, though there are marked individual differences in the ability to sleep soundly and to go back to sleep if suddenly awakened. To stop the activities of the household so that an infant may sleep

undisturbed by noise is to create a very bad situation from the point of view of his ability, later on, to rest under adverse conditions. The ordinary routine of the household should proceed while a child is sleeping, so that he may become accustomed to a certain amount of noise, although precautions should be taken to avoid loud or sudden noises. Many adults complain of their inability to sleep under any but particular conditions, believing it to be a matter of constitutional make-up. Often it is a result of early training. A child too easily becomes habituated to a certain bed, to a particular toy that he takes to bed with him, or to a light in the room. While regular hours are essential, minor details should not be made routine with too great exactitude.

In preparing for sleep we reduce as far as possible the number of encroaching stimuli. We lie down, relax, close our eyes, darken the room, in short, shut out as many of the surrounding influences as possible, so that the organism may have all the help possible in its task of recuperation. One very sound reason for having the child keep early hours is that, with the coming of darkness, it is easier to provide an atmosphere devoid of stimulation. If a child would sleep soundly until ten o'clock in the morning there would, perhaps, be no harm in allowing him to sleep from ten P.M. to ten A.M. instead of from seven P.M. to seven A.M. But daylight and the morning household activities act as strong stimuli which seriously interfere with prolongation of his rest at this time. Also, he must, when he enters school, rise at a fairly early hour. If he has been in the habit of sleeping late in the morning he must add this readjustment to a number of others and consequently prolong and intensify difficulties inherent in the new routine. A child who, on account of school or kindergarten, must suddenly be deprived of his midday rest may partially make it up by short rest periods before

his dinner and supper. During the first months of school life a child's routine should be so adjusted that longer sleep at night counterbalances the greater nervous strain during the day.

SLEEPING ARRANGEMENTS

Each child should sleep in a bed alone. It is desirable that each individual have a room of his own, but this is not possible in the average household.

A bed not too soft and yielding is preferable. The covers should be warm but light. Some children get up in the morning exhausted from the weight of the heavy comforters imposed on them.

Children should not sleep in the same room with the parents after early babyhood. Neither should they sleep in the same bed with a person of the other sex. This is a matter of importance, frequently unnoticed.

An interesting fact recently brought to light by a study of the unpleasant dreams of more than five hundred children is that children are more inclined to have bad dreams if they sleep in the same room or bed with another person than if they sleep in a room and bed alone. This is more noticeable when a child sleeps with an adult than when he sleeps with another child.

Proper temperature and ventilation of the bedroom are important elements in the sleep of a child. Without plenty of fresh air, sleep is of less benefit to him. What goes on during sleep is not precisely understood, but it is known that certain poisons, manufactured in the body as a result of fatigue, are being thrown off at this time. One has only to recall the heavy, sluggish feeling that pervades the body after one has fallen asleep in a warm, close room, to realize that without circulating air, the body poisons cannot be neutralized.

So-called laziness in children is often found to be the result of lack of sleep, or of sleep under unfavorable

conditions. Since the quality of sleep has as much to do with the individual's welfare as the quantity, the need will be seen for good ventilation and proper bedding and night wear.

EARLY BEDTIME

There are good reasons why young children should be in bed at an early hour. The evening should be a time of relaxation and recreation for older members of the family. Things which are relaxing for parents are not so for children. Music, conversation, laughter serve as a necessary outlet for adults, but act as stimulants to children, who can stand stimulation only for limited periods.

The young child who is nervously stimulated by entering into the family life at dinner and afterward is not in a mood to fall asleep quietly. Parents often say, "Bobbie might just as well stay up. He lies awake for an hour or more, and gets more and more restless as he is kept in bed." This is one of the points at which the parent may ask himself, "What is the stimulus which is bringing about this undesirable behavior?" For without a cause, no habit can take root. Perhaps the child has had his supper too early or has had too light a meal. He may be hungry. Perhaps he has had no outdoor exercise since his afternoon nap. Perhaps he was allowed to sleep too long at that time and is actually not sleepy at his proper bedtime. This is sometimes the case when the mother is negligent about having the nap hour come early enough in the day.

A child who has already formed a habit of not falling asleep until the older members of the family go to bed must necessarily suffer poor sleep during the time when a change of habit is being set up. The mother who attempts to change her child's habit often gives up in discouragement because for several nights the child lies

awake until his usual hour for falling asleep. This temporary irritation is far less harmful to him than restless, crotchety habits of sleep, which will impair his usefulness and happiness in adult life.

The rhythmic nature of sleep makes it necessary that the bed and nap hours should be strictly kept. If a child is taken to town one afternoon, it is likely that next day he will have difficulty in falling asleep. For this reason young children should not be taken to moving pictures or to parties in the evening. On very special and infrequent occasions they may be permitted to stay up a little longer than usual. The difficulty experienced in re-establishing desirable sleep habits points out the obvious saving of effort in not allowing lapses to occur.

REGULAR BEDTIME

When the hour for bedtime comes, give the child a few moments' warning, so that he may adjust to the idea. Here we have a striking example of the possibility of negative conditioning—we must secure a child's attention before giving the order, or he will come to be more and more heedless of our call. If he is allowed a certain limit of time, say five minutes, to wind up his game, put away his toys, or finish his story, he is not so apt to feel that the bedtime demand is unjust.

A regular bedtime must be set and adhered to. Children are quick to take advantage of a lax parent. Very early they may be taught to see the reasonableness of their bed hour and to appreciate that their parents, as well as themselves, are under the necessity of following laws. If the clock tells them when to go to bed, and also tells the adults when to go to bed, the procedure takes on a rational look. Doing things by the clock has the advantage, besides that of being impersonal and strictly just, of encouraging promptness and regularity in habits other than that of sleeping.

Such a habit as dressing and undressing has much to do with the favorable appeal of bedtime. At an early age a child's impulse to do for himself awakens. At first he merely cooperates in the game by thrusting an arm into a sleeve. When he shows a desire to help take off his shoes, he should not be overruled on account of slowness, but encouraged to do some bit of his undressing until he can do it well—even at the expense of some waste of time in the beginning.

If the parents have from the start shown consistency and firmness in handling a child and have not made arbitrary and unreasonable demands, no dislike for bedtime should arise. The hour may be looked forward to as a time for stories and songs of a quieting nature, but the time must be limited. The child whose pleas for "just one more story" are given in to once, will learn to beg and argue.

After being sure that all his needs are attended to, leave the child and do not respond to calls or requests. If two children not far apart in age must sleep in one room, they may be allowed to take turns in going to bed last, as the temptation to talk and play is too great when two are awake at the same time.

RISING HOUR

Much has been said about the inadvisability of waking children in the morning. While it is true that children's sleep should be undisturbed, it is equally true that if a child has gone to bed at a suitable hour, he will awaken at a reasonably early hour. If he is accustomed to waking by seven or seven-thirty, it will be simpler for him when he reaches school age to adapt himself to the necessity of getting off for kindergarten or school promptly. The child of five years has relatively little idea of the value of time, and if he is up early enough so that he need not scramble through dressing

and breakfast, there is less likelihood of his becoming negatively adapted to the situation.

One mother whose first child was allowed to sleep late in the morning, and who has had increasing difficulty in getting the girl to eat any breakfast, up to her seventeenth year, has tried a different plan with her other children. The younger girl and boy have arisen consistently at seven, and the readiness with which they begin the day has emphasized the wisdom of her plan. The older girl, who still finds it hard to get up and off to school on time, reproaches her mother for having encouraged such a habit.

With young children a fairly early rising hour is advisable in that it does not crowd breakfast too near the noon meal. Many children whose habits of going to bed are haphazard are not hungry in the morning, no matter if their sleep is prolonged.

NAPS AND RESTS

Until a baby goes on a three-meal-a-day schedule he should have, in addition to twelve hours of sleep at night, two naps during the day. When he becomes adjusted to having his dinner at noon, he will take one long nap in the afternoon. It is often necessary, while his schedule is being changed from the ten and two o'clock feedings to a noon meal, to set the hour for dinner and nap slightly earlier than twelve o'clock. The baby who is too exhausted to eat his dinner and therefore dawdles is not setting up a satisfactory habit for either eating or sleeping.

While a child takes two naps a day, care should be taken that the afternoon nap is not too late in the day, or the infant will acquire a habit of wakefulness during the evening.

It is more likely that a child will continue to take his afternoon rests well if from babyhood he is accustomed

to being put to bed directly after the noon meal. If he is brought in from play, undressed and washed, and made practically ready for bed before his noon meal, he will be less likely to rebel or to plead to be allowed to go out again to play. Rest aids digestion, whereas under play conditions emotion is likely to be aroused which will interfere with the digestive function.

A child should be completely undressed for his nap. If this babyhood custom is not dropped, a time of rebellion is less likely to arise—the rest period is accepted as a matter of course. The associations with being undressed are conducive to sleep, since our sleep is, in fact, largely conditioned by our attitude and by surroundings to which we are accustomed. It is important to keep a child's attitude toward bed and sleep a pleasant one. He should have only pleasant, satisfying associations with his bed, if we are to build up in him regular habits of rest. This is why a child should never be put to bed as a punishment. Two boys who were frequently punished in this way finally took to whining at their bed hour, "Aw, we don't want to go to bed, we haven't done anything naughty."

Parents are frequently discouraged because the nap habit seems to be outgrown too early, at three or three and a half. Very often it is found that a change in routine will bring about a return to the nap habit. One boy whose mother complained that he would no longer take a nap, or that if he did he remained awake late in the evening, was found to have a series of habits that led up to the situation. As a result of being up late at night, he slept late in the morning, often breakfasting as late as nine or ten o'clock. This meant that he was not hungry for his dinner until one o'clock. After dinner he was allowed to go out to play, consequently it was often three o'clock before he fell asleep. When his hours were rearranged so that he ate promptly at noon and was

awake and ready for outdoor play by three o'clock, he was found quite ready to go to bed at seven.

Another mother, whose child took long naps in the afternoon and was wide awake in the evening, solved her problem by seeing to it that the child was awakened after she had slept an hour. Gentle measures must be taken in such a case, so that the child is not made irritable by a rude or sudden awakening.

Below the age of one year, babies take several naps a day. Up to six months the day sleep totals about five hours; from six to twelve months, about three hours. It gradually decreases until, from the age of three to the age of five, the length of the nap is about one hour. The decrease in the number of children who take naps is steady, until at the age of five years only 30 per cent are taking naps.

A child who is gradually outgrowing the nap habit does not simply sleep a shorter time each day, decreasing his nap from one hour to half an hour, and from half an hour to fifteen minutes. Instead, we find that he takes a nap perhaps only one day out of three or four, decreasing to one a week. When he has reached this stage, the time spent in bed should not be lengthened, in the futile hope of bringing about a nap, but emphasis should be put upon an hour's rest and relaxation period, with no insistence on his falling asleep.

DIFFICULTIES

Much of the difficulty experienced by parents in establishing good habits of sleep in their children lies in their constant talk about the difficulties encountered. As in the eating habit, a matter-of-fact and casual attitude has much to do with the child's actions. If he gets attention by remaining awake he will often try to do so. Hearing adults refer to their own poor sleep induces a bad attitude in the child. He should be accus-



It's fun to do things for oneself.
Reproduced by courtesy of H. Armstrong Roberts.



That prized half-hour with father: the bedtime story.

Photograph by Mrs. Raymond J. Keller; reproduced by courtesy of *Parents' Magazine*.

tomed to think of sleep and rest as conditions of relaxation and enjoyment, not penalizations at the end of play.

In this connection we may refer to the child who has grown to dislike being alone or in the dark. Fear of the dark is often learned from other children less wisely handled. It may be forestalled by giving the child a cheerful conception of the protective and restful nature of darkness. Early recognition of fear associated with the night is important. If the fear has time to grow it becomes harder to dispel.

Children may readily acquire fear states from parents who talk of the possibilities of fire or burglars, or from mothers who are afraid to be alone in the house. The desire for adult attention or for companionship, if catered to, produces a finicky, restless child, whose sleep is far from regular. Excitement and overstimulation have much to do with poor sleep. As Dr. Blanton remarks, "The night is more important as an index to the past day than as an introduction to tomorrow."

Physical causes of poor sleep are sometimes overlooked. We should make sure that a child has no digestive difficulties due to improper or insufficient diet. His bowels should be moving regularly. If he continues to sleep uneasily and irregularly, we suspect some physical defect. Are his tonsils enlarged and inflamed? Is his breathing made difficult because adenoid tissue has stopped up his nasal passages? If such defects are taken care of, a sensible, controlled attitude in the parents will tend to lessen the difficulty.

One child may awaken too early. While children should be encouraged to get up when they awaken, lest bad habits of daydreaming or handling the genitals result from the half-awake period in bed, young children can frequently be trained to sleep a little longer or to amuse themselves without disturbing the family.

Often a very young child, not yet trained to complete bladder control, wakes because he is wet and uncomfortable. Sometimes a plan of getting up at perhaps four o'clock, early enough so that there is no danger of the child's not falling asleep again, and changing the diaper, or in the case of an older child, taking him to the toilet, makes it possible for the family to sleep until a reasonable hour.

Occasionally the child who wakes very early is hungry. Giving him a little more supper may solve the problem. Interesting books or toys provided for that particular time of day keep some children quiet. As soon as the child can dress himself, he should be taught to do so without disturbing others in the house. Children of three or four should be encouraged to be independent to the extent of closing their windows and putting on dressing-gown and slippers.

The parents should provide adequate sleeping arrangements, a relaxed atmosphere, conducive to sleep, and the opportunity for their child to maintain regular hours. In no department of a child's training is there greater need for cheerful expectancy of good results than in so volatile a habit as that of sleep.

SLEEP HABITS OF OLDER CHILDREN

As children grow older it becomes hard to enforce the regular bedtime that has been a habit of earlier years. Homework, the radio, music lessons, and outside activities take up time outside of school hours, and there is danger that the vigilance of parents in seeing that their children get enough sleep will be relaxed. It is safe to say that the child who awakens of his own accord in the morning, rested and refreshed, is having sufficient sleep; but this is true of fewer and fewer children as they progress through their teens. Terman found that while only about 20 per cent of the 2,692 children he studied

had to be awakened in the morning during the first years in school, nearly half must be called when they got into their later teens.

If there is any possibility of a child's needing more sleep, the plan of advancing his bed hour until he no longer has to be called in the morning may be tried. A two weeks' trial of this plan may be necessary, for in all probability the child will not at first fall asleep at the earlier hour.

While children are growing, it is necessary to provide them with a margin of safety. As Terman suggests, "it would be rash to infer that a mode of life is safe merely because it does not produce immediate and evident injury." We must "keep the reservoir of energy well supplied," in order to safeguard the child against unforeseen diseases, unexpected strain, and overwork.

QUESTIONS

1. Mary sleeps so long in the afternoon that she is wakeful in the evening. If her mother interrupts her nap, she is cross and fretful. What suggestions can you make?
2. How would you handle a child who wakes up every night at three o'clock and asks to get into the mother's bed? Where might the origin of this habit lie?
3. Suggest a plan for reinstating nap or rest period for a child of three whose naps have been allowed to lapse.
4. "Every daily act of a child (dressing and undressing, eating and sleeping, bathing and washing) can be made delightful or hateful, according to the suggestion with which it is presented." Is this statement true or false? Explain your answer.
5. Tom, aged eleven, wants very much to listen each night to an exceptionally good nine o'clock radio program. What questions would you ask in trying to decide this problem?

Chapter 10

ELIMINATIVE AND OTHER EARLY HABITS

A large part of early training has to do with restraining the instinctive, impulsive behavior of children. From the first we expect a child to forego the immediate satisfaction of hunger pangs, because it has been found better for the organism if there are definite intervals between feeding periods. We do not wait until a child falls asleep from exhaustion but establish regular times when, by reducing the stimuli surrounding him, we suggest and aid the process of sleep.

TRAINING FOR BOWEL CONTROL

The control of the bodily functions of urination and defecation is one of the kinds of learning to which we have perhaps attached too much importance in the child's early life. Before making dogmatic statements about babies' training we need to know much more about their development. The body's mechanism is arranged for an automatic riddance of waste material, and only very gradually can we substitute conscious control in place of a baby's natural tendency to give way to bowel and bladder urges.

Long before the child's nervous system is capable of simple associations, a certain percentage of successes will result from the mother's holding the baby over a chamber to induce a bowel movement. Formerly, such training was often begun before a baby could sit up alone, but more recently studies suggest that this is unprofitable. Beginning when the baby is able to sit comfortably alone, he may be placed on a small toilet seat for limited periods.

A child should never be made tired or uncomfortable by the procedure. Great care should be taken that he does not sit too long at a time, for irritation and dissatis-

faction will defer the establishment of the habit. Care is necessary to avoid prolapse of the rectum, which sometimes occurs when a child sits too long on the toilet. If a movement has not occurred in three or four minutes, another trial should be made later.

In beginning training, the same place and hour should be chosen each day, preferably directly after a meal. If a child has more than one bowel movement a day, he should be put on the vessel after each meal, until definite times are established. By the age of one year some children are trained to have only one movement daily, directly after breakfast.

Unvarying regularity of hour, place, and conditions, in so far as possible, is most helpful. Removing distractions, such as the presence of children, pets, or adults other than the mother, is a short cut toward the formation of the habit; for a child learns what is expected of him much sooner when not surrounded by confusing stimuli. For this reason, to give toys is seldom advisable. Later, when the habit is definitely formed, a plaything may be useful in keeping the very active runabout child quiet for the necessary length of time.

A better plan, when setting up the habit, is to arrange some sort of reward for a child when he is successful. To a young baby, the mother's smile and approval will do much to make his attitude favorable and helpful. To an older child, to whom sitting still is boring and distasteful, a favorite toy, a tiny piece of apple, orange, or candy—given as soon as he urinates or has a bowel movement, not before—may be useful in conditioning his behavior. Because restraint and inhibition are the natural causes of anger, we must be careful to avoid setting up an unpleasant association in a child's mind. Fuming and fretting will not bring favorable results.

The mother's attitude is equally important. Anxiety to see her child respond quickly sometimes leads to an unfortunate situation. The child finds that by rebelling

and refusing he gets more attention from his mother. If this occasion is of such importance to her, he is willing to keep it so. A mother's irritation at mistakes and lapses often has the opposite of the desired effect. One child who became aware of the importance her mother attached to her dryness acquired a habit of deliberately wetting her clothes whenever her mother had done something to anger her.

While *diet alone should be depended on to bring about proper habits of elimination*, it is, in some few cases, helpful to use a suppository of soap or glycerin to alter the movement to a suitable time of day. The suppository should not be used for more than two or three days in succession. Giving laxative foods at night often results in a natural, regular morning movement. The young baby may have prune and fig juice, the older child the pulp of the cooked fruits, both night and morning, together with a glass of warm water before breakfast. Castor oil should not be given. Mineral oil, on the other hand, has no effect on the muscles of the bowel and is not habit forming.

A physician should be consulted before trying to remedy extreme constipation or loose bowel movements.

THE DRY HABIT

In training for the dry habit, attempts at training are pointless before a baby's nervous system has developed sufficiently for him to make necessary associations.

If a beginning is made at about a year, a fairly high degree of success may be expected in connection with one's efforts. Watch the child for several days and note the times he urinates. Place him on a vessel near the times you have noted and keep a record of how often you are successful in anticipating his needs. This routine procedure should take place before and after naps, immediately after meals, before going to bed, either once

during the night or just before the parents retire, and directly upon arising.

In taking a child up at night, be sure that he is awake. If he is hardly aroused, but assisted or urged to the toilet, he will not be aware of what he is doing. Bed wetting frequently takes place when a child is in this half waking, half sleeping state, and *we must be careful to see that we are not more firmly establishing lack of control* by encouraging him to urinate while asleep.

It is important that satisfaction should accompany the setting up of the habit if we would have it built quickly. The approval of the mother is the first satisfaction in this connection. As soon as a child begins to appreciate the comfort of being dry, this source of pleasure may also help to hasten the habit.

Provide a comfortable place for the child to sit, limit the time he sits, and commend briefly on success. If he does not urinate at the expected time, do not lengthen the time of sitting, lest irritation and dissatisfaction defer the establishment of the habit, but remove him from the chair, and if he wets his clothes before you again put him on the vessel (which should be in a short time), do not scold, but treat the matter casually.

The child should be taught a simple word, gesture, or grunt to indicate his needs, as soon as he realizes the possibility of control, which is usually between the twelfth and nineteenth months. This marks an important step in his learning. When he uses this word or gesture, it will at first probably be after he is already wet. At such times he should be commended for telling rather than scolded for getting wet, approval tending to help him to tell before he gets wet. A child often responds satisfactorily to the expectation which the mother shows in exchanging diapers for drawers. His response to the mother who is constantly fearful of his getting wet is likely to be that which she expects.

An important factor at this stage is the treatment of lapses. After a child has acquired control, there are many occasions when (owing to excitement, fatigue, or changes in weather) he slips back into lack of control. If at this point the mistake is made of punishing him, the unhappy association has almost inevitably the effect of enforcing lack of control. Reward for successful efforts will make him conscious of the goal he has reached and give him a desire for further attainment.

Lapses occurring in a child who seemingly has been fully trained frequently cause emotional behavior in his mother. If her discouragement or anger is sensed by the child, more, and even conscious, lapses may occur. A belief in his own powers of control may be built up by positive suggestion, but too much talk about the habit may have the opposite effect. A cheerful, confident attitude is as useful here as in setting up correct eating habits.

Bear in mind that children *differ greatly in speed and permanency of learning*, hence, though one child achieves control by eighteen months, another may not be completely trained until he is two and one-half or more. There is also a sex difference to be considered, boys being somewhat slower in establishing control than girls. A child is often completely in control of himself in the daytime, long before he has gained control at night. When training especially for night control, it is often a help to limit fluids after four o'clock, to give a very simple and early supper, and not to allow romping or hard playing with a group late in the afternoon. After the control is once established, the severity of the diet and routine may be relaxed.

Before night control is fully established, awakening a child to go to the toilet when the parents go to bed is helpful. Parents often ask if this does not result in a

habit that is hard to break. If the child is thoroughly awake when he goes to the toilet, he should presently be able to wake and go to the toilet without help. As control becomes more a conscious matter, he may be able to get through the night without waking. The habit of waking to go to the toilet, even though prolonged, is more desirable than that of bed wetting.

Train the child in due time to take care of himself; full responsibility is often possible at three and one-half or four years, if the child's clothes are easily managed. The speed of learning is increased by simplicity of clothing. A child is discouraged by accidents, which all too often occur as a result of involved clothes with many buttons. Train by wholesome example and suggestion to healthy attitudes of privacy and modesty.

Too great emphasis on privacy in connection with the eliminative functions may, in some instances, result in a child's inability to urinate or move his bowels in an unfamiliar setting, as at nursery school or when on a trip. For this reason it is wiser not to accustom a child to use only his own special toilet seat.

ENURESIS

Some children, whether or not the training has been adequate and regular, continue to wet the bed at night. When this goes on past the third year, the mother should determine whether the cause is physical or mental, or whether faulty training is to blame.

Medical attention is necessary when enuresis or bed wetting is caused by physical factors. This happens in a very small percentage of cases and may be due to:

1. Malnutrition—lack of muscle tone due to faulty feeding.
2. Nervousness, emotional disturbances, lack of nerve tone as a result of excessive fatigue, malnutrition, or serious illness.

3. Anemia — deficiency in amount of blood, or reduction of red blood cells.

4. Local irritations, as adherent prepuce or rectal irritation due to worms or fissures.

5. Incontinence because of highly acid urine, due to insufficient fluid in diet.

Enuresis may be caused by psychological factors:

1. Careless training in early childhood prevents formation of the correct habit. This type of case is often seen among neglected children. It is occasionally impossible for the mother to begin training as early as she would like, but she should keep in mind that the longer the learning of the good habit is put off, the harder will she be obliged to struggle with breaking the firmly established habit of wetting. The greater ease with which control is established when a child is under two years points to the effectiveness of early training.

2. A negative attitude of parents or nurse develops in a child a lack of self-confidence in overcoming his difficulty. Humiliation through comparison with other children in the family who have good control adds to his discouragement. The consequent shame and unhappiness may cause a feeling of inferiority productive of absolute hopelessness. This may extend to everything he tries to do.

3. Fear may bring about, in a sensitive child, the bed wetting that he hopes to avoid. Abnormal or morbid fears, mental stress because of failure and unhappiness in school, or unhappiness over family situations are also conducive to the habit.

4. Punishment by parent or nurse for lack of proper control sometimes fosters antagonism that expresses itself in continuance of the habit. When the mother shows much concern, the child — who has few ways of asserting his independence — clings to the habit that has proved distressing to the mother. Many cases of bed wetting clear up when the parents cease to show concern, are casual and cheerful, and thus constructive in their attitude.

5. Bed wetting is sometimes an attention-getting procedure. Perhaps the child finds the notice he receives very pleasant and desirable and has no incentive to grow out of his baby habits. Parents often make the emotional life of a

child so satisfactory that he dislikes to progress out of babyhood. Having a child wash out his own night- and bed-clothes sometimes takes away from the desirability of continuing the dependent attitude.

TREATMENT OF ENURESIS

Whatever the cause, the parents should have a cheerful, positive attitude, thereby assuring their child of his ability to overcome his difficulty.

Plenty of rest, simple, wholesome foods, and restriction of drinks and hard play after four o'clock often solve the problem. Occasionally mothers try to break up enuresis by cutting down all liquids taken by the child. This is a bad procedure, for a child needs considerable amounts of liquid to supply his bodily needs. The best procedure is to give a child all the liquids he wants, even encouraging him to drink water in quantity early in the day, and *then to reduce the amount of liquid after four o'clock in the afternoon*. Milk at supper may be cut to half a glass, the remainder of the needed amount being given at breakfast and dinner, and the child may be given a small sip of water—about two tablespoonfuls—before retiring.

When these measures do not help, as in the case of breakdown of the dry habit, or in cases of persistent enuresis, a complete physical examination, including an urinalysis, should be the first step in the treatment.

Definite effort should be made to locate an emotional difficulty if no physical defect is found. The process of discovering the emotional difficulty must be most tactfully and understandingly carried out. Parents should be particularly careful to guard against showing annoyance, punishing, humiliating, or comparing a child with other children in the family who have acquired control. Patience and emotional indifference are, according to Dr. Blatz, fundamentally important principles.

THUMB SUCKING

We do not know enough about the causes of thumb sucking so that remedial suggestions can be given with any degree of assurance. In individual cases, until we have satisfied ourselves of the underlying cause, our efforts will prove of no avail.

Experimental work has given us the clue that possibly a contributing cause lies in an unsatisfied sucking instinct in the baby. Owing to being hastily fed from a bottle, perhaps, or by reason of short, greedy intake at the breast, a baby may get a sufficiency of food without getting sufficient sucking movement. This incompleteness of the sucking phase may account for the origin of thumb sucking in many babies, while the habit comes to be such an emotionally satisfying one that it tends to persist in childhood, constantly becoming more set and hard to break.

That children sometimes find it pleasant to remain at the infantile stage has been pointed out with respect to bed wetting. There are other infantile habits which, while not strictly related to the learning of eliminative habits, bear directly on a child's progress out of babyhood.

Thumb sucking, when it persists beyond babyhood, is an example of this group of infantile habits. The baby finds one of his great pleasures in eating. When by chance he gets a thumb or finger into his mouth, the pleasure that results is a faint echo of the sensation derived from sucking at the breast. He comes to depend on this more and more as a solace when tired, when hungry, when moody, or out of sorts. In a large proportion of cases of thumb sucking in older children, the mother reports, "He does it only when he is sleepy, or hungry," as the case may be. This points to the measures which should be adopted in attempting to correct the habit. It will do no good to use mechanical means,

nor will scolding or nagging have any effect, other than to make the child resort even more surely to his one way of escape from the nagging — namely, to get the finger into his mouth. In an earlier chapter we noted that — provided the useful thumb is in the mouth — some babies who are inveterate thumb suckers show no fear of objects which ordinarily make them cry.

We must first determine if possible what is at the bottom of the sucking — and then change the child's regime. One boy of three sucked his thumb almost all day. He had a fine play-yard, sandbox, a swing, and toys but preferred to loaf about the house, looking out the window or following his mother — always sucking hard on his thumb. His mother became worried and asked for help when the child's pasty complexion revealed his indoor habits. When the mother came to see how a playmate might alter the situation, she made an effort to find a child of like age, sufficiently near by to play daily with the boy. A playmate accomplished in short order what months of begging, promises, threats, and mechanical means had failed to do. Giving a new interest to the bored child, changing his outlook from the limited one of his babyhood, is effective, while parents' anxiety and worry only increase the difficulty.

Quietly removing the thumb from the mouth, with no comment whatever, sometimes aids a child to initiate another activity. The removing process may have to go on thirty or forty times a day, for awhile, and is helpful only when the adult's attitude is casual and friendly, and when no attention is called to the act. With a young baby, not yet old enough to take an interest in materials or use his hands much, it is often necessary to resort to measures which would not help an older child. First be sure that the baby is comfortable, is not hungry, and if he is tired, that conditions are good for sleep. His hands may be confined in small socks, in aluminum mittens

made for the purpose, or the baby may be put into a sleeping bag. It is important that the free use of the arms not be interfered with, or the restraint will cause the child invariably to resort to the one means that he has hit upon as assuaging his wants—and the thwarted efforts to get the thumb into the mouth will cause an intense emotional reaction.

The persistence of thumb sucking in older children may be their one unfailing way of getting the attention of the mother. Baby may take what seems an undue share of her time, sister may lay claim to her through the pretty clothes that mother enjoys making for her—and nothing is left for brother but to fall back on his thumb. Let him stick that in his mouth, and mother will notice him in a moment. Even if her notice isn't very favorable, he is secure in the knowledge that this is something she cares about. The answer, of course, is for mother to give him some attention in a worth-while way, for what he has felt as neglect is real to him.

When the habit of thumb sucking has been long established, and the humiliating jibes of his schoolmates have no effect, the practice has probably become a way of buffeting off attacks of various sorts. In this case it is far more necessary to find out why the child needs a fortress in which to hide than to do away with the habit itself.

Talking to a child about his habit should be strictly avoided. When effort is thus obviously centered on the habit, the child reverts to it as a defense against the harangue of the parents. We cannot hope to do away with the habit without substituting something else for it, and our concern should be to find some desirable type of activity to take its place. Sometimes a child has been too closely limited, perhaps he has exhausted the possibilities of his playthings and his environment in general. This event indicates the need of the child for play mate-

rials adapted to ever changing and growing needs — not that he should be deluged with toys but that the play-things and equipment he has should lend themselves to the progressive nature of his interests. He should have sufficient variety, particularly in the way of materials — paper, wood, clay, and sand — with the proper implements and tools to work them, so that his imagination may have constructive outlets. Parents sometimes say, “Billy is not old enough to handle a saw,” when they have never given him an opportunity to show how he can adapt his muscles to its use.

HANDLING OF SEX ORGANS

Handling of the sex organs, which is often confused by the parent with masturbation as it occurs in older children, should not cause as much worry and alarm as most mothers feel on encountering it. Its appearance in young children is only an expression of perfectly natural curiosity, a passing phase if not emphasized by the mother’s attitude and made to take up the child’s attention. No other childish habit is so misunderstood or is the object of so much unreasoning emotional reaction.

A mother who discovers her child handling his genitals is usually so taken aback that she has difficulty concealing her emotion. She forgets the fact that to a child one part of his body is as indifferently interesting as another. He has none of the knowledge of sex, none of the sex consciousness of the adult, yet we read into his action all that is implied by our own imperfect training along this line.

In the case of a young child no mention of the matter should be made, but his attention should be diverted. With older children activities should be watched with a view to providing outlets for all the impulses to action that appear. The real need is to keep the child’s attention away from the undesired habit. This is why *punish-*

ment, which makes the offense stand out in the child's mind, should never be resorted to.

If care is taken that the child get up as soon as he is awake, and that he be tired enough to fall asleep directly he is put to bed, opportunities for starting the habit will be lessened. Other means of preventing the habit are never letting him sit too long on the toilet, keeping all parts strictly clean and free from irritation, and avoiding tight or confining clothing. In this connection the parents will see an additional reason for never putting a child to bed as a punishment.

The child who is happy, active, and interested all day long with work and play materials and companions near his own age, who gets good food and enough rest, and has not so much attention that he prefers to remain dependent, will not long be subject to such habits.

QUESTIONS

1. Why should training for bowel and bladder control be begun not later than the end of the first year?
2. Suggest two possible results of the use of frequent punishment in connection with this habit.
3. What measures would you take with a child who, after being completely trained, began at the age of three and one-half years to wet his bed?
4. Suppose you found your four-year-old child had been taught by another four-year-old to handle his genitals. Suggest a way out, other than forbidding play with that child.
5. What would your procedure be in attempting to cure thumb sucking in a six-month-old baby? In a five-year-old child?

Chapter 11

CONSTRUCTIVE DISCIPLINE

"I can't bear to punish my child," a mother was heard to say. "Children are going to have a hard enough time when they grow up, so I believe in standing between them and life as long as possible. Let them be happy as long as they can, I say."

Such twisted thinking won't do much toward insuring her child's future happiness. Parents must protect their children from physical danger while they are too young to take care of themselves; they must also help them to develop the ability to make judgments about what constitutes desirable and undesirable behavior. A child who has his own way throughout childhood will actually have a harder time in adult life than one whose parents have had as a goal in their discipline that time when the child will be independent of their planning and thinking for him.

Parents find it hard to plan for such a goal. Discipline is often thought of as training for obedience or subjection. That the individual must learn obedience not to an outside authority but to those inner dictates whose standards are the result of thought and discrimination is sometimes forgotten.

It is comparatively easy and pleasant to tell children what they shall or shall not do, and parents are loath to consider the time when they will no longer be in a position to control their children's course in life. From the outset training should have as an end self-discipline and self-direction.

Even during the period of complete helplessness, when the infant must depend on the parent for everything, the parent should be building good disciplinary habits. The baby who is fed only at regular intervals,

whose hours for sleeping and bathing and exercise follow a carefully planned routine, is learning unconsciously how his best interests are served by obedience to law.

By degrees, as a child can walk and talk and reason out many things for himself, he must be given an opportunity to make choices. His increase in independence and self-control will come largely as a result of the number of times he is allowed the possibility of a choice between two courses of action. The number of occasions on which he begins to practice his judgment will influence the ease and speed with which he makes judgments and decisions throughout life. Adult control must be reduced if a child is to have any increase in judgment and ability to decide wisely.

Parents often ask, "How early is a child able to reason?" A child begins to reason and think before he walks or talks. The baby of eight months, who tosses his rattle or ball out of his carriage and then calls attention to the fact by cries and antics has (not consciously, of course) gone through a process of reasoning to get the notice he wants. It is here that he begins to build up a definite knowledge of what to expect of his parents.

ESSENTIAL PARENTAL ATTITUDES

What attitudes are essential in the parent who is to succeed in helping his child toward an independent adult life?

1. Firmness is one essential without which no parent can expect loyalty and respect from his child. The old idea that a child must respect his parent has resolved itself into the question, "What kind of parent must I be to command respect?" We cannot force a child to respect an unstable parent, though we do require him to follow the letter of the law and do exact lip obedience when inwardly he is rebellious and obstinate.

But what do we mean by obedience? What are we

hoping to do in seeking obedience from a child? To quote Dr. Gruenberg, "Obedience is the means by which the older, more experienced person guides the child and protects him against the dangers of impulsive action. It must be considered an instrument by means of which the child is led to discover standards of conduct outside of his own impulses and untrained desires. Obedience is not to be cultivated as being in itself an end of our training."

From yielding to each impulse a child must learn to follow the guidance of his parents; the child who refrains from touching food when he is hungry and sees it being prepared is an example of this stage. Achievement of the next step in acquiring self-control will depend largely on the help the parents give in supplying examples and ideals which will clarify the child's ideas of independence. For instance, it is all very well to reply to a child's objection to going to bed before we do with the glib statement that he needs more rest because he is growing. If in the morning he sees the adults in the family yawning and heavy-eyed from insufficient sleep, we have missed our cue. No opportunity should be lost to demonstrate to him that adults as well as children are under the restraint of law and that those who break laws of self-control are not looked on as responsible and dependable members of society.

2. It is important that we substitute for the old notion of domination the plan of gaining his cooperation. The case in which the child's nose is held while cod-liver oil is forced down illustrates the situation of the parent who intends to dominate. Cooperation is taking place between parent and child when a child runs eagerly to get the cod-liver oil because it is "his," because he is always allowed to unwrap a new bottle, and has never seen an older person make an ugly grimace when the subject was mentioned.

The type of direction and guidance given children in connection with problem situations is strikingly important. Children who are given unhurried, specific, positive, and encouraging types of directions show a greater number and per cent of successes achieved than do children who are given hurried, general, discouraging, and negative verbal directions. For example, "You can do it promptly" brings about greater effort and success on a child's part than "Hurry up and do it. Hurry up." "It is time to go to the toilet now" will be much more likely to bring the desired behavior than "Do you want to go to the toilet?"

3. Being reasonable involves giving children freedom in accordance with their development. Parents often refuse to expose their children to any risks, unaware, it might seem, of the impossibility of standing at a child's elbow throughout life. The mother of a five-year-old boy was disturbed at his failure to adjust at kindergarten. Her waking hours since his birth had been devoted to his welfare, and now he was failing to make friends, to progress, or to be happy. She had never allowed him out of her sight, and watched from the window when he played with other children, had shielded him from the "bad boys" in the neighborhood, and had walked to the school door with him each day. When it was pointed out to her that her solicitude had helped to bring about the boy's failure, her bewilderment was great. Being unwilling to allow a child to take physical risks, constantly warning against falling, against getting hurt, may result in making him docile and tractable, but it may likewise result in slowing down his natural initiative and curiosity. Unwillingness to subject a child to chance associates may mean that he will later fail to get along with other children. When at school he is forced to mingle with them, having had no practice in give and take, in sharing and taking turns, he will tend to bluster

and dominate, or to sit back and take orders—neither of which courses will contribute to his future happiness.

4. Another element in rational behavior between parent and child is that of explanations. Tradition decrees that the child must do as we say because we “tell him to” or because “I am his parent.” That relationship does very well between master and dog or horse, where there is slight possibility of explanations, but it is hardly a sound basis for the training of a young creature whose experience will soon make him able to argue with us.

“But won’t explaining to a child *make* him argue?” asks a parent. Assuming the child to be a reasonable being, treating him with the respect due an equal will increase his belief in the reliability of the parent. In reality, only that parent who usually explains to a child why a course of action is necessary can depend on a good response to the formula, “Do it this time just because mother tells you to. Haven’t you found my other requests reasonable?”

The child who keeps up an argument is a child who expects to bring about a change of front in the parent. How else has he evolved this plan of bringing up excuse after excuse? He has found that sometimes his parents’ arbitrary demands cave in before his attacks. He is not asking for explanations but for ways of avoiding the issue.

The parent, on the other hand, who can back up his courteous command by a reason for it, often has the child responding under spur of his interest in the explanation. Suppose a child is ruining the hang of a door by swinging on the door knobs. His scrutiny of the hinges after an explanation of how they pull out of the wood constitutes another activity. He is much more easily persuaded to desist by such a substitute than by the petulant shouting which offers him no explanation and nothing in place of what he is doing.

5. Parents cannot be truly reasonable unless they agree on methods of handling a child. When there is no cooperation a child feels the uneasy pull and seesaws back and forth in uncertainty. If the two parents have no policy in common, and let their child see it, how is he going to rely on the word of either? Here are two adults whose ideas should represent to him uprightness and truth. "The essential home of the child lies in the attitude of the parents toward one another."

Parents often refrain from disagreeing openly, thinking the children will be unaware of the difference in their points of view. It is hard to keep this sort of conflict out of the atmosphere, even if it is kept out of the actual conversation. Suspicion and misunderstanding are as disagreeable and harmful as open quarreling.

Where ideas do not harmonize and emotions have no natural outlet the child often suffers. Irritation at adults is often taken out on children. Children bear the brunt of many explosions of temper not in reality directed at them.

HELPS TOWARD ESTABLISHMENT OF GOOD RESPONSES

1. Getting a child's attention is the first step in getting his acquiescence in what is necessary. This was mentioned in the chapter on Learning, under the head of negative adaptation. Before issuing a request or command be sure that the child hears you and comes to attention.

One cannot expect a child to learn the habit of complying readily if he is jerked hastily, without preparation, from whatever is occupying his mind. To spend a little time planning our approach will save time and the child's disposition in the end, because it will result in a pleasant attitude on the part of the child toward being called. Of course one cannot expect on every occasion to take time gently to lead up to a request or command! But remembering that the original stimulus to anger is blocking or thwarting, is it not worth while to prevent the frequent application of this stimulus? A child's interests are as vital and absorbing as an adult's; the parent who understands how to gain his

child's cooperation, through entering into his play, will have less difficulty making his call heard. An example of this is the child who comes willingly to the table when his mother puts her request in such a form as, "Time now to put your truck in the garage—the delivery man wants to eat his supper."

2. Few commands: Many children early acquire a negative adaptation to the sound of the parent's voice because of the number of commands or suggestions offered. Cameron, in explanation of how to prevent nervousness in children, quotes Emerson, "Respect the child. Be not too much his parent. Trespass not on his solitude."

A mother whose four-year-old boy was much loved in his neighborhood by both adults and children was concerned because he was gradually showing more and more frequent stubborn and disagreeable behavior to her and to his father. The three were constantly at swords' points, while outsiders continued to comment on the perfection and amiability of the child. What had happened was that the parents, intent on having the child continue to merit praise, had acquired the habit of constant supervision of his conduct, so steady and insistent as to constitute nagging. When the demands and suggestions showered on the child ceased, his irritable behavior lessened.

3. What is expected of a child must be appropriate to his age. Often in our ignorance of what children can do at various stages in their development we have in mind rigid standards of behavior to which a child cannot live up. Much of the punishment given children occurs because the parent has no clear idea of what may or may not be asked legitimately. In the past, ignorance of standards was an excuse. Today we cannot fall back on this for we are able to find more and more reliable information on what children are capable of doing and understanding at different ages. Because a child chances to be the eldest of a family he is frequently expected to show discretion and judgment that would do credit to an adult. "Stop teasing Helen! You are old enough to know better!" Does the parent know at what age the impulse to tease usually appears or the age of its disappearance? Has an effort been made to occupy the child's time, so that idleness or boredom will not result in teasing?

4. Praise is more effective than blame. Emphasis is too

seldom laid on a child's good behavior. While every minor misdemeanor is dwelt upon, opportunities for commendation and encouragement are allowed to pass. "Reproof, like punishment, loses all the effect when it is too often repeated, and the child soon takes it for granted that all he does is wrong and that grown-ups exist only to thwart his will, to misunderstand, to reprove, or even to punish" (*Cameron*).

SATISFACTIONS AND REWARD

In the chapter on Learning we saw that a child progresses faster in any kind of learning if he feels satisfaction in connection with it. We make frequent use of this principle when we reward children for doing what we want them to. We need reward the baby only with a smile and an appreciative word, for the approval of his mother means everything to a young child. But as time goes on it becomes hard to find rewards that have meaning to a child, and if we are not careful we will come to rely too much on his being anxious to receive our favor. We can easily make the matter of doing the right thing such a personal one that a child is in danger of being good in order to please us. As children grow we must help them understand that it is not for the pleasure of mother or father that we expect their behavior to be satisfactory, but because such conduct is desirable socially. At each stage of a child's development we must appeal to the highest motive possible to his understanding.

With this suggestion in mind we can see that rewards that are dependent on a child's efforts form the most desirable incentive to further effort. The pleasure to a four-year-old in having successfully buckled his overshoes, the delight of an eight-year-old in having put together a creditable bit of carpentry, make them want to do other things that will bring them such thrills of well-being. As Morgan says, "The reward which follows as an inherent result of conduct tends to have a specific

influence in encouraging the continuation or repetition of such conduct."

This does much to explain why some types of reward quickly lose their effectiveness. A child may several times eat an unwanted food in order to have the fun of pasting a gold star on his chart. But after a few days the procedure becomes dull and boring. It has no real connection with the child's effort, and fails to have any permanent effect. An older child may at first work for the money he is promised if he will bring home better marks from school. But unless the money has some meaning to him, unless he is intent on saving it for something he very much wants, it cannot long be depended on to motivate him.

A very young child can appreciate only those satisfactions which are immediate. He cannot look far ahead, so his rewards, to induce certain behavior, must come at once. As he grows older, more remote aims and objects toward which to work should be steadily in line. Ways must be found of keeping up his interest in the immediate undertaking as a means to an end. Expecting a four-year-old to be interested in saving for a college education, as many parents do, is an impossibility, so remote is the satisfaction to be gained.

Success, even in small things, proves a powerful stimulant toward higher things. The encouragement engendered by praise, if not unwisely depended on, can be an incentive toward greater endeavor. Constant blame, on the other hand, drags a child down, his attitude becomes despondent, the material reward is only a sop.

Some parents worry about the effects of praise, fearing to make their children complacent and content to rest on their oars. It is well to keep in mind that praise should be given only when a child has made a real effort. The effects of praise in such a connection should not be confused with praise given for something the child has

had little or no hand in bringing about; under this heading would come comments on personal charms, such as beautiful hair or eyes, or on occasions where luck or chance has favored a child.

We should keep in mind the fact that adults, as well as children, work for rewards. "Joy in one's work," "the satisfaction of a task well done" are too intangible and vague to represent reward to a young child. Only by degrees may we substitute rewards on a higher level, and work toward a sublimation of desires. The degree in which the discipline will be constructive is determined largely by the relation between parent and child. One characteristic peculiar to childhood, when the brain is ready and open to learning of all types, proves a double-edged sword; namely that a child is just as plastic for poor responses as for good responses.

DANGERS OF SUGGESTIBILITY

The child at this period reveres his parents. He has come to love them as the source of his pleasures, they are the patterns which he copies in his behavior. The parent who is interested in helping his child build up desirable habits will take advantage of this early suggestibility by himself exhibiting the desired behavior.

We do not want a child to be too suggestible to any type of stimulus, else he may in the end exhibit "lack of purpose and acceptance of suggestions as the easiest line to follow."

When a child is made the butt of incessant suggestion and persuasion, he may gradually become stubborn and negative in his attitude. Children, as well as adults, like best to work with those who leave something to their initiative and ability, where suggestions and comments are not constant. When resistance is shown by a child it is often a "symptom of nervous unrest, which he catches from the unrestful atmosphere

in the home" and "may be regarded as the usual response to attempts at control which are at once ineffective and persistent" (*Cameron*).

NEGATIVISM

Negativism, or refusal to cooperate, is to a certain extent a normal characteristic, often, as one writer puts it, "disagreeably conspicuous in little children." The underlying cause of such behavior in young children is usually assumed to be the struggle of the child to become a personality, but one investigator who has studied this behavior suggests that there are other indirect causes for this display.

Negativism, according to Miss Reynolds, "may not be so often a refusal for the sake of refusal as a refusal because of other interests." Again, the fact that the greatest amount of negativism is observed in two-year-olds points to another possible cause. At this age, a child is often unable to express himself adequately. The direct "no" at which we show shocked surprise may be the child's way of saying, "I don't really want to do what you ask, but I will in a minute." If we do not make too much of these misunderstandings, he will gradually acquire more polite formulas like "May I wait a minute?" Many children who should have passed through this stage are, at four or five, showing the behavior of two-year-olds because their parents were unaware of sound methods of handling negativism at its first appearance.

It will be recalled that in the study of anger discussed in Chapter 7, the peak of anger explosions among the children observed occurred in the second year. It is obvious that such findings reflect the many frustrations and irritations that are certain to beset the small child in his struggle to assert himself. There are bound to be times when the child's will and that of the parent clash.

No parent would feel easy in mind about the future of a child so habitually pliant and docile that he could be guided absolutely by what that parent considered best for him. It is a sign of development and enlargement of outlook when the child begins to assert himself actively and independently.

But when a child thus carelessly assumes he has the right of way, a critical moment has arrived. The parents' task is that of making the child realize the necessity of sometimes waiting, as it were, for the signal to read "go," instead of plunging ahead impulsively. Dr. Cameron has stressed the importance of as few "stop" signs as possible. Changing the figure of speech, he says, "Take the child off the leash and it will cease to strain and chafe and oppose."

RELATION OF SURROUNDINGS TO THE CHILD'S RESPONSES

Our obligation is to provide surroundings which offer as few chances as possible for collision of wills, and to accord the child his own way of thinking and doing whenever that way is not harmful. In many homes the arrangements are such that many occasions arise which arouse the child's irritability. In one family a child of three much enjoyed washing his hands when allowed to push his little stool in place, reach for the soap, and turn on the faucet himself. His father, thinking to save time, insisted when he was in charge that the "non-sense" of getting the stool be omitted. This meant the child had to stretch his little arms uncomfortably and could not have the fun of helping. The time wasted in quieting a rebellious child more than offset what would have been spent in preparing for the rite, which had also the advantage of teaching the child methodical habits that he enjoyed.

It is inexcusable for a parent to cling stubbornly to his decision just because he has set his foot down. There

is less danger in admitting a mistake in judgment than in the probable realization by the child that the parent is merely willfully and unfairly setting up his superior strength and position of authority. According to Lewin, overly harsh or severe surroundings may lead to his insulating himself from the environment. "The child becomes stubborn and negativistic."

A child's surroundings can form a potent force for the expansion of his personality and ability, or they can tend to force him back within himself, and cause him to develop resistance to any influences from outside.

Many emotional disturbances which leave their mark on a child might be avoided if parents considered a moment before giving commands. Needlessly to distract a child from his engrossing occupation is a serious offense, and the more thought the mother gives to her commands, the fewer they will be.

A very young child has no realization of what he is doing as right or wrong. To him things are interesting or uninteresting. The behavior which is often looked upon as mischievous or naughty is entered upon only because he is a restless little animal, doing what his eyes and ears and other sense organs tell him to. Only by careful degrees can he be taught and shown by example what is expected of him in various situations. One authority goes so far as to say that the best discipline consists in "letting children alone and setting them a good example."

The fewer the rules a child has to follow, the more quickly he will learn them, and the less likely he will be to develop an antagonistic spirit of wanting to do exactly the opposite of what he is told.

These suggestions may be kept in mind:

1. Make requests or suggestions only when you are sure the child hears you. Attention is necessary to secure co-operation. •

2. Ask yourself whether the standards of behavior you are setting are within the child's ability to achieve.
3. Give as few commands as possible.
4. Make your requests "do's," not "don't's." The co-operation that might otherwise be hard to secure is often easily gained in this way.
5. Show pleasantly and firmly that you mean what you say.
6. Once you have asked that a thing be done, follow it up. If orders may with impunity be neglected, all the discipline is undermined.
7. Try to be consistent. Let your demands rest not upon unstable emotions or feelings at particular times, but on a basis of order and right.
8. Provide a reasonable explanation of why a child must do a thing, and try to connect his duty with his own interests and pleasures.
9. Treat a child as an equal and he will often reward your reasonableness with unquestioning compliance because he has learned to trust you. Because he, as an individual, is unable to look out for his own rights, it is especially necessary for you to respect those rights.

PUNISHMENT

To many people "punishment" means physical punishment. Any disapproval, censure, or calling to the attention of a child that the response is wrong constitutes punishment. However much we wish to avoid punishment, there are times when a child's rash behavior must be made to serve him against future offenses. What is our aim in punishing? We hope it will deter the child from that particular behavior in the future, but this is secondary to our desire to induce greater self-control and judgment. Often the punishment fails of effect because the child has no clear notion of why he is punished. It is important that we explain wherein what he has done is wrong or objectionable, and also that we give him an idea of how to do the thing in the right way, if we really expect him to profit by our correction.

This gives us an indication of how seldom we should punish for a first offense. Much bitterness results from lack of understanding in the mind of the child — he has not known that what he was doing was not permissible. Such an instance is that of two youngsters of three and four who set out to paint the porch screens with the gay red paint left over from the painting of the silo, the progress of which they had watched with fascination.

1. Punishment, to be effective, must be prompt, especially with a very young child. Prompt punishment does not mean hasty punishment, in anger. Rather, it means bringing the results of an act close enough to the event so that a child's short memory may encompass the thing as a whole.

2. Punishment must be just and graded to the nature and degree of the offense.

3. It must be adapted to the individual child.

4. A child should understand the purpose of the punishment, or he will look upon the parent as vengeful and irate.

5. Belief in a child's underlying good intent is important. Discouragement and mistrust will not help him to better habits.

6. Rarity of punishment emphasizes its aim. The better the parent, the fewer the occasions which call for punishment.

The following methods of punishment are suggested:

1. Natural consequences serve in many instances, where danger is not involved. A baby of fifteen months learned after one experience with a hot radiator to reach very carefully for a ball which had rolled under. The natural consequences of slow dressing, for example, in an older child, would be the loss of a trip because the child — after being warned — was not ready on time.

2. Isolation from the group serves to show a child the advantages of cooperation. Being deprived of the society of others is not a punishment for all children, but the desire for companionship very often leads a child to make a pronounced effort toward behavior acceptable to his group.

3. Deprivation of some special pleasure, toy, or satisfaction is effective with some children. The mother must be

ingenious enough to discover what particular deprivation brings results with each child. One child may treasure the story hour, another some personal belonging, another a walk or visit.

4. Disapprobation of the parent is effective if not overdone. The disapproval of the parent must be directed at the deed, not at the child, and must be strictly limited. Sulking by the mother, coming back again and again to recriminations and regrets, wears out a child's affection and makes him callous and unyielding.

5. Corporal punishment is effective with children too young to discriminate, when it serves as a check to a forbidden act. If a child's hands are smartly rapped just as he is on the point of touching something forbidden, the pain is a check against repetition of the act. This is true only when the pain is sharp enough to outweigh in importance the desire which the child feels.

Punishment of the corporal type is best administered to the very young child. Only before a child can be reasoned with should physical pain be relied on to condition him against undesirable acts. Children should be spanked on the hands or lower legs, never on the buttocks. Spanking near erogenous zones on a child's skin surface (areas where the external membrane gives place to mucous membrane — lips, anus, etc.) may give rise to sex excitement.

A disadvantage in the use of physical punishment lies in the fact that parents tend to rely more and more on it rather than gradually to discard it. Physical punishment, when used rarely, is a different thing from the savage blows which serve merely as an outlet for the adult's pent-up feelings. "Blows are always dangerous to the parent, even if we have reason to suppose that now and then they may be safe for the child." It is also worth noting that in the case of a punishment like spanking, the conditioning may take place with reference to the mother, against whom strong resentment

has been aroused, rather than toward the act for which the child is being spanked.

It is unsafe to leave a gap in a child's activity. If we want to prevent the continuance of some disobedience, it is necessary to fill the child's time with plenty of enjoyable and profitable employment. We must "not simply check the bad desire, but seek till we can find and foster some other desire, in the presence of which the bad may find it hard to live."

There are three modes of controlling children. One is the punishment of incorrect responses, with neglect of the correct responses. Second, we may reward the correct responses and neglect the incorrect responses. Finally, we may give rewards for the correct responses and punish the incorrect responses. We saw in the chapter on Learning how much satisfaction or pleasure (reward) helps in the establishment of good habits.

DANGERS OF PUNISHMENT

Improper punishment may result in grave harm.

1. Fear of the parent is often aroused by harsh, frequent, or unjust punishment. Lying to escape punishment is the natural consequence. Evasions and deceits begin to color the whole nature with dishonesty.

2. Hardness and cruelty may be brought about by punishment that is not adapted to the individual and hence causes him to build up a defense.

3. Repressions and inhibitions of natural conduct: The nature which has not the strength to resist, shrinks and cringes and takes refuge in a dream world, instead of expressing its impulses by doing. Unhealthy daydreaming is one of the great dangers associated with unwise punishment, as the dreamer gradually loses connection between purpose and the action involved in carrying out that purpose.

We have seen that children learn not everything they do repeatedly but the things they do successfully. It is also true that they learn not to do the things that bring them discomfort and failure.

Our hope in punishing a child lies in the possibility that we may bring about regret in his mind. If doing a certain thing has caused him to feel sorry, then he is not likely wittingly to repeat that act. If, then, our punishment or method of handling him does not lead to a feeling of regret and distaste for the act, it has failed. If we are unwise or hasty in our treatment the child may feel only chagrin at having been detected in behavior displeasing to us. Perhaps next time he will be more careful not to be found out!

It will be seen that punishment must take into account not merely the simple act which was wrong but, among other things, the child's attitude toward us, his feeling at the time, and the amount of pleasure he got out of the act.

Punishment is so much more likely to have harmful than good results that it should be used with the care one would take in handling an explosive. As Kilpatrick says, we must be careful to see that the positive good we expect as a result will outweigh whatever "evil will almost surely follow."

In all our care and training, we must keep in mind not only the distant goal of healthy and successful adjustments in adult life but the life the child is living now, too. It is easy to be so intent on carrying out an idea, on finishing a project, that we confusedly grasp at any tools, without giving enough thought to their suitability. Parents have so long depended on the handy tool of punishment that they sometimes overlook its inadequacy—unaware of the rough gouges and cuts that it leaves upon the personality.

Discipline, then, must be thought of as a guidance which will take account of the child's continuous growth process—considering each step in that process to be as rich and full of value as the next, or any other future one. Every good that enters his life at each step will

make him better prepared to make a success at the next stage.

"Our part of the discipline," says Kilpatrick, "is to help the child while he is now living to learn such things as enrich his life now and promise most for the next period, and so on, in such manner as to make the most of his continuous growing."

The parent should cultivate the power to measure a child's effort rather than the result. He must restrict his authority to the time when the child is unable to judge for himself and watch for the time when the self-control which he has fostered makes that authority no longer necessary to the child's welfare. The age at which this time arrives depends on the opportunities a child is given for self-reliance, for using his own judgment, and for making choices.

If the parent has made an effort to fill his child's needs, he should see that child gradually accumulate principles and ideals which, interpreted by his growing power of thought, will make him a capable and dependable adult.

QUESTIONS

1. Jimmy's mother punished him for biting his little sister by biting his own arm, to show him how it felt. Very soon after, he again bit the baby. Suggest why this punishment did not work. How would you handle this behavior?
2. Whenever Billy has to be punished, he loudly asserts that he doesn't care, no matter what ingenious method his mother devises. Suggest explanations for this seemingly callous behavior.
3. "John, two and a half years old, was put to bed for his afternoon nap as usual at twelve-thirty. He did not wish to sleep, but did not make an undue fuss. From the quietness, I supposed him to be asleep. At three o'clock I went into the room to waken him. To my surprise, I found him sitting in the middle of the floor with all the

personal belongings from my desk strewn around him, papers, letters, sewing materials, and a bottle of candy, about half of which he had eaten." Does this situation call for punishment? Discuss your answer briefly.

4. Carl and Herbert are identical twins, similar in physique and in personality traits. Neither is of a particularly submissive disposition. They are playing in their sand pile and Carl has begun to build a long fence. As his fence grows longer, he insists that Herbert move farther and farther back into a corner with the pail and shovel. Herbert finally becomes very cramped for space in which to move his shovel and insists on having more territory. Carl says, "But you have to move back. I need to build my fence." He pushes Herbert back a bit and they begin to fight. They are four years old. What would you do if you were their mother? Why?
5. Pauline, aged six, is a very tractable, lovable child, who can do many helpful things in the household. Her mother, however, complains that she always says, "Wait a minute," when asked to do anything. Why do you think this habit arose?
6. How may dish washing be made to have pleasant associations for a child?

Chapter 12

CURIOSITY, QUESTIONING, AND SEX EDUCATION

The desire to prolong a sensation, to repeat an experience, to find the relationship between different facts and objects and feelings is perhaps the most characteristically human of our mental activities. This exploratory, investigative desire may lead man into difficulties—it is sometimes useful and sometimes destructive to him—but without it he would not have progressed far. Instead of sighing at the approach of the day when a child begins to show marked curiosity, the parent should welcome the child's interest in his surroundings as an indication of developing intelligence.

CURIOSITY AND INTELLIGENCE

From the time when a baby becomes curious about what is inside his rattle and makes vigorous attempts to get it open, to the time when, as a man, he becomes interested in the synthetic production of some much-needed material or in digging out some obscure historical reference, there are indications of an association between initiative, curiosity, and degree of intelligence.

To belittle or neglect manifestation of curiosity is a dangerous thing. Since it is so important a factor in the development of attention and concentration, a lack of it in a child betokens either that his mental equipment is poor or that he has not had good teaching. Since learning is going on from birth, we must avail ourselves of our opportunities, or the child will enter school with his mind already set away from the active, eager interest which should color his life. The attitude of parents, then, must be looked on as an active conditioning factor in a child's development through curiosity.

A baby has, or should have, almost uninterrupted opportunity for indulging his curiosity through his eyes and ears. The time when he sits or lies in his carriage or crib, passively staring at his surroundings, is by no means wasted. We often divert a baby's attention unnecessarily and by such distractions lessen and hinder his attentive power. The puzzled wonder with which a baby slowly picks out elements from the "blooming, buzzing confusion" which flows all around him is the beginning of the concentration whose lack we often regret when he is in school.

SENSORY EXPERIENCE

During the first months the baby is busy listening, watching, kicking, putting objects in his mouth; later, as he grows, handling everything he can reach and enjoying intensely the variety of sensations he gets from different objects. The favorite plaything of one six-month-old baby was a grater with four sides of differing roughness; the prickly feeling gratified his desire for intense sensation which none of his other playthings afforded.

Smell, touch, taste, hearing — all should be taken into account when planning the surroundings of the baby. Color is one of the first sensations that come to the child, and parents should realize that children enjoy colors other than the extremely bright, strong ones. The colored balls, blocks, and first picture-books should contribute to his learning of harmony and beauty.

Many children are refused opportunities to learn through touching, handling, grasping, throwing, etc. In an environment planned for grownups the child makes futile attempts to turn what he sees to his own uses. The mother who cannot stand the clutter on the kitchen floor that arises from a fifteen-month-old child's efforts to fit pans and covers, to screw on jar tops, to pour

and measure, sift and strain, is short-sighted. For the happy, busy child who is engrossed in this firsthand experience with things will give her more free time than will the bored child for whom she must constantly plan busy work. As Joseph Lee remarks, "In all experimental science the limitations of things and materials have to be determined by actual experiment"; therefore unless we have provided a saw for the small boy, why allow ourselves to be upset over the sad result of his use of Dad's saw on "raw" nails?

It is this desire to experiment, to manipulate, to monkey with things, that has given man's hand its marvelous variety of uses, that has led to the ingenious invention of all manner of tools which achieve what the hand alone could not. Without an increasing acquaintance with things of all sorts, there is not as rapid gain in motor response. The child should be improving his muscular control; being on the alert to all his surroundings will bring those instinctive responses which with practice bring about better cooperation between the muscles.

Children can learn muscle coordination earlier than is generally supposed. The children of the Nursery School of the Institute of Child Welfare serve themselves, cafeteria fashion, no attention being centered on teaching them to carry their dishes carefully. During 1,297 meals in the school the number of cases where dishes were actually dropped was slightly over one per cent. Such a record in children under five years belies our fears.

Not content with touching, tasting, listening to what is near at hand, the baby is presently impatient at the limitations hemming him in; he frets for new fields. When he can get about on his own legs, his interests are somewhat changed. While he is still interested in the feel of things, he now becomes fascinated with finding

out *why* and *how* they are so. He is more anxious to be the power that sets activities in motion than he is to watch them go. He does not want a mechanical horse with measured trot, he wants to *be* the horse. He wants to run, to slide, to grasp and throw, to feel his power over objects. A wagon to pull or push, stairs to climb and stamp on, a whistle to blow—all these give him the ecstatic delight of being the *cause*.

Children enjoy the looked-for sensation. Harriet Johnson's *Nursery School Experiment* tells how curiosity prompted a boy under three years of age to walk cautiously out on the overhanging end of a loose board, obviously enjoying to the full the bump that came presently.

SPEECH AND QUESTIONING

A child's curiosity should have an outlet in the linguistic play which he so much enjoys. It is engrossing to watch a child progress through the stages of learning speech; first of investigating with no attempt at gaining by the presence of others—sitting quietly on the floor, babbling to himself, absorbed in putting a stopper in and out of a bottle; on through the period of listening to the talk and explanations of those around him, thus building up an understanding of words which enables him to follow orders, though he does not yet talk himself; to the final period when self-expression becomes his aim.

When a child associates much with adults, his speech enlarges its scope early. The brightness of the child has much to do with his efforts at getting in touch with his surroundings through the medium of speech; highly intelligent children often talk as much as eighteen months earlier than children of low intelligence.

When questioning begins, the child is first interested in objects themselves; next appears his interest in "What is it for?"; still later his interest spreads to "Where did

it come from?" "Who made it?" and other inquiries as to how and why — with a growing application of facts already learned.

Stanley Hall many years ago called attention to the carelessness of parents in not acquainting children with much that is of interest and value in their immediate surroundings. The first-grade children studied by Hall showed surprising gaps in their information about the common things of everyday life, and similar results have been obtained recently in a study of the range and extent of information among Minneapolis kindergarten children. The parent takes for granted that his child knows, for example, what butter is made of, forgetting the child's limited experience. Sixty per cent of the children studied did not know from what butter is made. That butterflies make it is a common response in five-year-olds. Of the children studied, over half had no idea where wool came from, eight per cent of them thinking it grew on trees. Common as automobiles are in the daily experience of children, almost half of them did not know what the brake was for, although 11 per cent hazarded the opinion that it was to make the automobile go.

The differences in the opportunities children have for the gratification of their curiosity is shown by comparing a child who lives in his own home with one who lives in an institution. A two-year-old, in the former case, will ask perhaps sixty or seventy questions in a day; in the latter, a child so rarely finds someone ready to answer his inquiries that his questions may amount to only about ten a day. The variations between conditions in one family and another are of course also very great. What privation, almost to the point of starvation, it must be to an eager, intelligent child to have those about him so absorbed in their own affairs that they do not heed his questions.

The parent who takes pains by means of pictures, stories, and conversation to give the child a knowledge of materials, relationships, causes, and effects, is stimulating the child's eager curiosity and helping him both to observe and to think for himself. Children whose parents are merchants or professional and business men show a slight superiority in the range and amount of their information, as tested by this particular study. The average boy outranks the average girl in the number of items with which he is familiar. Girls do not excel even in information about household affairs, as we have hitherto been led to believe.

Sex differences in interest in different types of play material begin to show up early. The interest of boys of four in doll carriages is not in pushing dolls about in them, but in turning them upside down and spinning the wheels about, or playing that they are motors.

MISUNDERSTOOD IMPULSES

1. The fascination of discovering how things are made, what makes them go, may look to the offhand observer like destructiveness. Much of a child's spontaneous activity is classed as mischief or naughtiness, and his investigative cravings become "destructiveness." As Hall says, this is "a phase too frequently misunderstood; the motive is overlooked and the child's point of view left out of account." The child's interest in the mechanics of things is closely related to constructiveness, and the two tendencies may be treated in combination. A boy of four spent his time in taking apart or breaking every toy that was given him. His parents were in despair over this habit of demolishing things. When he was provided with some scrap wood, hammer, saw and nails, his joy in having materials to work with, instead of being frustrated in his efforts to discover how things were put together, demonstrated to the parents

how poorly his needs had been filled in the past. The "finished" product of a child's effort appears to the adult so crude and useless that it is hard for him to understand the child's feeling toward his own creation.

2. What seems like cruelty in young children is often merely an outcropping of strong investigatory desire. Stanley Hall tells of a little girl who, having poked at her doll's eyes until they fell in, was found crying bitterly. Condolences over the sad fate of the doll were met with an explanation of her real reason for crying, "Now I'll never know what made them shut when I laid her down!" Pulling the dog's or cat's tail is not always indulged in from wanton cruelty, as many adults presume to think, but from a desire to see what the dog or cat will do. Children are without exception interested in animals. From the first this lively curiosity may be diverted into efforts to promote the comfort and happiness of animals. Opportunity should be made for the child to take an active part in caring for a pet.

3. Another manifestation of curiosity is the desire which prompts an older person to travel round the world. A child, eager for new experience, often attempts to get it firsthand. The two-year-old who wanders off cannot be said to be a runaway, but an inclination of this nature is sometimes encouraged by a parent whose intentions are the opposite. Why does the child run away? Often because he is too limited at home; he lacks interesting things to play with, children to enjoy them with, or both. Parents frequently punish a child for running away, without making a single effort to find out what is at the back of it. Punishment, with no treatment of the underlying causes, is like giving a tonic to an underweight, malnourished child who really needs rest, change of diet, and outdoor play. A runaway child, whose mother was frenzied with fear lest she get under

the wheels of a truck, was usually found contentedly playing in a neighbor's sand pile with two children of her own age. Her own sand pile had no attractions when she was alone, but served to remind her of the jolly companions up the street.

4. The older child whose truancy distresses parents is often a victim of too limited opportunities. An adolescent boy who had become a confirmed truant from the city school of his congested district became reliable and happy in a country-town school where the woods and fields were at the doors. The confining, prison-like atmosphere of both home and school had been fermenting in him, although he himself was unconscious of the reason for his disturbed emotions.

VARIETY IN EXPERIENCE AND SURROUNDINGS

The readiness with which young children adapt themselves to any situation in which they are placed sometimes misleads us into acceptance of narrow surroundings which offer few possibilities to a child. While our aim should be to keep the environment of the child simple, we may err on the side of a simplicity which becomes monotonous to the child. Children need variety of occupation and experience. This must not be taken to mean that they need distractions and a multiplicity of interests, but that their horizon should be constantly widened. A child must have surroundings that will give scope to his curiosity, that will give him a chance to progress.

That he is changing all the time suggests that new curiosities are developing. As new instinctive tendencies appear, they will open the way to creation of new interests. Every new experience, as well, expands a child and makes possible a wider range of his attention. Children need firsthand experience with things to satisfy their curiosity. Trips to the country to see and know

rocks, streams, insect life, farm activities, should early form a part of their experience. To be a participator in, not merely an observer of, what goes on is necessary if children are really to benefit by these efforts of the parents. A week or so in the country when a child is four or five will teach him more than he could learn later in the same space of time. His eyes and ears are open, so eager for information that he seems to absorb it through his pores. A child makes note of many things that we might expect to pass unobserved: a girl of three years and four months stopped singing one day to say, "It's the tongue that's singing."

CURIOSITY A SPUR TO EFFORT

Parents are sometimes at a loss as to the advisability of answering all their children's questions. "If once you begin to answer, the demands are incessant," says a mother. "When my boy asks where I am going, he is not content with the answer, 'I am going to the dentist's.' He wants to know, on the spot, why teeth ache, what they are made of, how they are pulled, and whether the dentist has a little boy."

This mother had undoubtedly tried conscientiously to answer all her child's questions, and he had found that in questioning he had a means of holding her attention in an unprecedented way. Having asked at first out of real curiosity to learn, his interest had degenerated into a desire to keep the center of the stage, and a fertile mind supplied him with questions—in the answers to some of which he was interested, in others of which he was not.

The mother who attempts to answer all her child's questions fully is not doing him a kindness. She should wherever possible spur him on to find out for himself some part of what he wants to know. She can often give him a hint or send him exploring, in the garden or field

it may be, for a clue to his answer. The mother who cannot sit down and explain why some seeds are winged and why others are not, when a child comes in full of excitement over a bursting milkweed pod, can send him out to take the first step himself, by finding as many seeds as possible that have wings.

Often the mother will not know the answer. Finding it out in company with the child increases the sense of comradeship and makes it habitual. Setting the engrossing task of finding, for example, an answer to why it frosts on clear and not on cloudy nights, and saving the report for the dinner hour, will insure one topic of conversation in which all the family will be interested.

CURIOSITY ABOUT THE BODY

Very naturally the exploratory and investigative interests of a child extend to his own body. That parents are heedless of the child's need of knowing and understanding something about his body is indicated by Hall's study of what children know when they enter school: 88 per cent of the five-year-olds examined did not know what their ribs were; for more than half, ankles, waist, or hips had no meaning. Parents may recognize that they have been hampered throughout life by their incomplete knowledge, and yet stand in the way of a child's knowledge of bodily functions and hygiene.

As Dr. Wile says, "Normal functioning during adult life is largely dependent upon an adequate preparation for living during childhood and adolescence. It is essential that children acquire a consciousness of the normality of their sensations, thoughts, and actions in terms of the reproductive organs which so definitely condition life and activity.

"Sex education is definitely related to numerous problems of mental hygiene, in so far as it may affect the occurrence of worry, fears, and a sense of inferiority,

guilt, or sin. There is a considerable importance in bringing about a consciousness of the meaning, purpose, and service of the sex organization without developing any degree of an undesirable self-consciousness."

Often, mixed with the parents' ignorance, is a shame-faced misunderstanding of the relation of sex to life. The persistence of the feeling with which the subject was colored in our early life should be an indication to us of the value of early establishment of normal attitudes. Because there is an undoubted tendency for the beliefs accepted first to become the standards which influence the individual's future, it is highly important that the first information should be reliable and uncolored by emotion or bias.

Children are frequently put off, or misled, when at the age of two or three they begin to ask questions about their bodies, because of the parents' feeling of inadequacy to the situation. This feeling of incompetence is often a result of the wrong handling of the parents' youthful questioning, and should in itself be the incentive for parents to find and familiarize themselves with accurate, truthful statements of what a child should know.

Contrary to the popular belief that young children ask a great many questions about sex, the number is negligible when compared with those they ask in general. Only fourteen of a total of 3,650 questions asked by children between the ages of three and twelve dealt even remotely with sex. The broad interpretation put upon the word may be judged by the following typical question, "Will I marry when I grow up?"

The impression that children ask a great many such questions probably arises from the fact that those they do ask stand out vividly and are remembered, because of our feelings of embarrassment and inadequacy. Even

though we ourselves feel no constraint in talking to a child casually and frankly, our attitude at the time may have been one of inhibition, owing to the presence of someone who was shocked or surprised at the child's remarks. Parents should try not to allow their fear of what other people will think to interfere with the building up of normal attitudes in their children.

In their efforts to put the matter of sex on a high moral plane, parents often sentimentalize and emotionalize the information they give. The facts about sex should be explained to a child with no more emotion than when explaining the digestive or respiratory system. This must not be taken as an attempt to materialize or lower the intimate and beautiful implications of sex, of fatherhood and motherhood. Rather, a matter-of-fact presentation lessens the possibility of exaggeration of feeling in a subject to which the parent is usually highly sensitized.

Another type of error which is sometimes fallen into is telling children the processes of reproduction in birds and flowers and fishes, expecting the association to carry over into human life. That this cannot be depended upon to take place is shown by the large number of cases where absolute ignorance of human sex relations occurs alongside adequate understanding of reproduction in other forms of life.

But, some parents say, is it not desirable that a child be distracted when he questions, that such information be withheld until he is better able to understand it? There are several reasons why a frank and candid answer to children's questions is necessary.

1. We have mentioned the fact that attitudes and ideas acquired early in life tend to persist and to dominate the adult's point of view. Many adults, scrutinizing closely the conditions under which their first impressions of the place of



Will our frog eat what we brought him?

from *All the Children*, 37th Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, City of New York.



Where shall we put this stamp from the island of Guam?

Photograph by W. T. Duvall, Jr.; reproduced by courtesy of *Parents' Magazine*.

sex in life were obtained, will agree with the truth of this statement.

2. As we have seen in the chapter on Discipline, the establishment of self-control should begin early. This is true of all departments of behavior. Only when a child's questions (spoken or inner) are answered can we expect to lead his curiosity on to higher levels. If his curiosity goes unsatisfied, if he gropes in the dark, there can be no constructive, progressive growth of self-control.

3. The impulses and desires of the child should be in harmony with what he knows. If he has only vague, haphazard notions of the basis of life, he is undoubtedly open at one time or another to a conflict between what he must feel is a base desire and his interpretation of what the world in general looks upon as desirable conduct. When a child's knowledge is at variance with the stage of his development, he becomes an easy prey to self-distrust and weakness. Many a child has passed through a period of horrible fear and worry as the result of the unexplained, horror-stricken reprimand of a parent against the suddenly discovered habit in the child of handling his genitals.

4. The fear and worry caused by half-information is only one of the dangers of ignorance. The parent who postpones telling a child the story of life until "he is old enough" runs the risk of having that story told him in some very undesirable form — ugly, twisted, colored by the chance teller's own interpretation. The information thus given may also be wrong, in whole or in part. How much better to have the information come from his parent, in whose words the child knows he can have confidence.

The dangers of misinformation are far reaching. Maladjustments in married life, cases of seclusive, unhappy personalities, are often traceable to the warping and distortion following misunderstandings in early life. Half-understood references, chance occasions on which the ugly and perverted side of sex life is thrust upon the child's view, and the possible influence of unscrupulous individuals are all provided against when the child has a reliable, authoritative source of information in his parents.

WHAT THE CHILD SHOULD KNOW

Vocabulary of Body Parts and Functions

If a child is to have an open, aboveboard feeling toward the matter of sex, he must have the right vocabulary. If the body parts and functions are spoken of furtively, in euphemistic phrases, the child will acquire a secretive attitude. He should be taught from the beginning the correct names for parts of the body and their functions, with additional information about his anatomy and the interesting mechanisms which keep it going. Dr. Gruenberg, whose book (see end of chapter) is a great practical help to parents, considers the following vocabulary necessary to the child before he reaches school age, lest unwholesome suggestion influence his ideas of the meanings of the words.

Pertaining to parts of the body: Breast, nipples, navel, abdomen, rectum, anus, foreskin, penis, testicles, vulva, vagina.

Pertaining to functions or conditions: Emptying bowels, emptying bladder, urinate, defecate, constipated, loose bowels, diarrhea, pregnant.

Pertaining to emotions and desires: Hunger, fear, anger, shame, jealousy, envy, disgust, excitement, depression, sullessness.

The acquisition of this vocabulary should, of course, be incidental to the happenings of the child's daily life. Information should be given "freely and impersonally, without forcing, without emotional coloring, and without suggesting anything unclean or morbid."

During the early stage, as Galloway says, "the great thing to be done is anticipatory, protective, and formative of good habits, attitudes, and emotional complexes."

Teaching cleanliness, regularity of bodily functions, and keeping attention from sex organs are of first importance, always remembering that each member of the family is taking an indirect and unconscious part in the

child's education by his own attitude. A four-year-old child, for instance, who wept and showed great embarrassment over having to be examined by the doctor proved to have been conditioned to this shame by a grandmother oversolicitous to teach the girl modesty.

The child of from five to seven years will be interested in knowing where babies come from and should know the mother's part in family life, as well as the general facts of reproduction in the animals he knows. The child is interested in a particular animal—not in generalizations about animals—hence the desirability of pets.

During the next few years most of the teaching should be concerned with health, and with building up pride in bodily development. Admiration is strong, both in boys and girls, for the fine qualities of mind and body in the leaders and heroes whose footsteps they are ambitious to follow. Ideals of manliness and womanliness, of the responsibilities of the father and the mother toward the children, are permanently impressed on the suggestible minds of children during the years from eight to eleven or twelve.

This is the time for encouraging hobbies and interests which will take up all the spare time of the individual. The mechanically inclined boy who has a basement to work in and tools to work with has his mind centered on whatever project he is going to work on after school, not on hanging around corners where his mind will be filled with vulgarities.

From his earliest years we have endeavored to have the child learn control of his natural and impulsive behavior. We must continue to build up in these older children not only self-control but positive tastes and emotions which will protect them against the longings and impulses which may overtake them in adolescence.

The changes which are about to take place should be

explained, the facts of the secondary characteristics which begin to be apparent—the changing voice and growth of hair on the face in boys, development of the breasts and other changes in bodily contour in girls. The facts concerning menstruation and seminal emissions and the internal changes which they imply should be made thoroughly clear. Warnings should be avoided but ideals and standards constantly put before a child by example.

It will be seen that throughout it is an attitude in the child which we are attempting to build up; not only the content but the way in which the material is presented is of primary value. By appealing to the child as a growing individual, rising always to a higher and higher level of behavior and appreciation, we keep his mind centered on constructive and worthy conduct.

One of the best and most natural methods of approach to a child's acquisition of wholesome information and attitudes is the early mingling of the two sexes in the home. After early childhood it is of course highly desirable that children acquire habits of privacy and modesty. Such conditions are more readily brought about, however, where the natural curiosity of one sex as to the other has been amply satisfied in a normal, casual way. Children should be accustomed to seeing their parents and brothers and sisters unclad, as a matter of course, up to the fourth or fifth year, by which time there should be no curiosity remaining. Where there are not both boys and girls in the same family, opportunity should be made for the children to see babies of the other sex being bathed and cared for. The interested delight of young children in babies provides one of the safest, as well as simplest, means of acquainting the child with the physical differences in the sexes, from which he can be led on to an appreciation of the interesting differences in nature and powers. Mothers

sometimes make the mistake of neglecting this opportunity by rigid separation of boys and girls. A mother who sends a girl of three out of the room while she changes the diaper of the baby brother is fostering the curiosity which she might be satisfying and dispelling. For it has been found that what a child has been told slips out of his mind. Once his curiosity is gratified in a casual, matter-of-fact way, he often forgets the exact information which was imparted and may come back again later with the same question.

Parents say, "Why give the child information if he is going to forget it? What's the use?" For the very good reason that what a child asks about frankly he is not repressing or dwelling on morbidly without bringing his inquiries into the daylight. The fact that a child does forget, that he does come back to be told the same thing at different stages, indicates that at the time he first asked, his questions were answered.

Knowledge of Reproduction

The embarrassment that many parents feel at talking over with their children the process of reproduction leads many of them to postpone information as long as possible. Parents occasionally say, "But I have had no opportunity to tell my child where babies come from. He is ten years old but has never shown any interest or curiosity. Surely it isn't necessary for me to lead his thoughts in that direction?"

We may be sure our children do not reach the age of ten or twelve without some questioning. An investigation among elementary school children revealed the fact that by the time the average child is in the sixth grade he has received sex information from as many as eight sources, such as companions, adults outside the home, books, and other contacts. This shows that whether or not the parent wishes it, his child is going to have in-

formation. Whether he is to have that information given correctly and in the best way rests with the parent. We may indignantly refuse to admit that our children have a morbid interest in sex. Of course the questions which come up in their minds have none of the multifarious implications with which the subject is unavoidably associated in our minds. Children may repress that curiosity from a natural timidity, but lack of questioning in many more cases is owing to the weight of suggestion which has been exerting itself since their birth. "This education has not been, to be sure, a planned or purposeful guidance. . . . Indeed for most children it has largely been built up by our eloquent silences . . . our evasions and concealments. . . . The child comes to have ideals as to what is worthy or as to what is reprehensible. He becomes frank or furtive, reverent or ribald, impulsive or controlled . . . largely by what goes on around him, what happens to him day by day, when we are thinking least about his education."

If our child's education is progressing thus, willy-nilly, do we not prefer to have a hand in it? We may forestall harmful and illogical attitudes by the careful presentation of that groundwork of knowledge which we feel is essential to a child's interests. Instead of waiting for his questions we will begin early to take it for granted that he is interested in the origins of life. Mention may be made as casually, for example, of the time when the baby was growing in the mother as of the time when it was deriving its food from her breast. Children who are introduced to the facts of life in this fashion, to whom the truth is a matter of course, are unlikely to provoke embarrassing discussions under unsuitable conditions. As for the possibility that they will talk about such things outside the home—having someone at home to answer questions makes the child less interested in discussing them with companions. At the same time, there

is less occasion for concern in a child's passing on correct information than in his learning wrong attitudes.

A child need not, should not, of course, be told the story of life all in one breath, nor in formal, stated periods. Its acquisition on his part should be so gradual a process that he is unaware of it; just as his table manners benefit by example and training for years with scant attention on his part on any one occasion.

Knowledge of Social Relations between Sexes

The degree of character development that we see in our children results from suggestion or, as one writer has put it, what "enters the mind by the back door." For this unconscious element in what determines our children's opinions and feelings, parents are largely responsible. Only when they are themselves open-minded and serene can they expect to influence their children's sex impulses along lines which furnish safe, creative outlets. Plenty of healthy play, plenty of activity, sports and competitions, clubs and hobbies, all these are an aid in diverting the strong sex impulses of adolescence, which, repressed, lead to unhealthy and morbid questionings.

QUESTIONS

1. Give an instance in which a child's curiosity greatly advanced his learning.
2. How would you go about helping a child acquire a large vocabulary?
3. At which age do you think an encyclopedia should be added to the family books, when a child is three, six, or ten years old?
4. Why should each child have individual sex instruction by the mother or father?
5. Is it advisable to wait until the child shows curiosity or asks questions about sex before we begin our training? Why?

6. The mother of nine-year-old Arthur is at a loss to answer his questions about how one tells boy and girl babies apart. Can you suggest a way of satisfying his natural curiosity?
7. When a child begins to get about to explore and handle things, would it be better to —
 - a. Spank his hands sharply whenever he gets into ash-trays, magazines, and bric-a-brac?
 - b. Remove from living room the things he is likely to harm, and let him have free rein?
 - c. Keep him in his own room much of the time he is indoors, where there is nothing he cannot handle, climb on, or experiment with?
 - d. Allow him in living room for limited periods and expect him to keep hands off?Have you other suggestions to offer?
8. Peter's mother needs help in handling him. He is fifteen months old and perfectly fearless. He runs into the horses' stalls, steps on little chickens and kills them, gets into the machinery. What can you suggest as causes and remedies for this behavior?

Chapter 13

IMAGINATION, TRUTH, AND FALSEHOOD

Imagination is a gift without which the child's world would be meager and cold. It is one of the biggest sources of human joy and delight, as well as the spring from which inventive and creative ability rise. Strength of imagination in a child is often related rather closely to his happiness and activity, for the child with a quick, keen sense of the world of fancy has plenty to do and think about. He has within himself a fund of experience and observation, which he can fall back upon when another child might be bored or listless.

It is sometimes assumed that there is something morbid about imagination and that its appearance in the child is to be feared and repressed. There is in the individual's innate behavior nothing that may be called good or bad. There is no more danger connected with imagination than with any other natural mental activity. Like curiosity it may, when poorly directed, lead the child into harm. If daydreams absorb the child and make him lose touch with the real world, then imagination may be said to be playing too important a role.

Imagination is an invaluable asset in adult life. Only the person who has imagination can enter into the joys and sorrows of others. The imaginative person is the sympathetic and understanding companion. Much of the selfishness of this world is due to a lack of this power; if it goes uncultivated in childhood, it will wither and die.

Imagination has a use very practical to parents, for the imaginative child may be more easily guided toward acceptable behavior. Many a parent has made use of the child's delight in playing soldier to secure prompt and delighted obedience to orders that might otherwise

have proved irksome. The child who has been taught to make play of putting away his toys, cleaning up after a "wreck," or pretending that he is packing up to go on a journey, is the child who later on, when asked to rake the lawn, sees in the grass and leaves an important "crop" which he is harvesting.

By being stimulated to careful observation and encouraged in accurate reports of what he sees, he learns to make discriminations, to see and appreciate fine points of difference. Every bit of observation and experience is enhanced for the imaginative child because of its relation to other experience. A three-year-old boy delightedly called the attention of his father to a dog which had oddly hair-fringed eyes, "He's an owl, Daddy, he's an owl!"

Children are aided by sensory training which helps them recognize slight differences. Materials like the Montessori inset blocks—triangles, squares, cylinders—fitted into appropriately shaped holes help the children to make quick, clean-cut decisions of eye and hand and train them in perception.

The child who has many experiences with reality will be able more easily to utilize his resources toward building up a full, rich, imaginative life. Three children who had been on a picnic in a park some distance from their home spent days afterwards in arranging a park in their grove. Elaborate ditches for rivers, with barrelstave bridges, laboriously printed signs and equipment, tested out their powers of observation and satisfied their longing for imaginative play.

Early contact with the intimate details of nature, acquaintance with the life-history of insects, fishes, birds, is a simple way of interesting a child in exact and accurate methods and attitudes. That child who is not curbed in his imagination, but who is given every opportunity to test the actual with the imagined, is gain-

ing in intellectual honesty. Suppose the child is heard to boast, "Oh, I can make a boat like that." Only if he tries it out, and has a chance to see how his lack of experience and skill limit the result, will he learn how hard it is to bend material to his will, to express successfully what he imagined. The learning of the child is immensely enlarged by imagination. Every unfolding that the child watches in nature makes him more appreciative of the pattern that runs through life. Every time he dramatizes the life about him in his play, he is learning something of its reality, even if it is only by imitation. The boy who must eat only hard-tack because he is cast on a desert island is testing his patience and self-control. A girl who made a remarkable record in high school did most of her studying in a tree-house, built when her imagination was stirred to emulation of the hero of a story.

To give children the full benefit of learning through imagination, they must have a free environment. They do not need perfection and finish in their surroundings to make them happy. Children invest with magic the most ordinary and commonplace things. They will fish over the banister, for example, with a string and go to great pains to land a block that has no resemblance to a fish. Here they are engrossed in the doing; a stick becomes a hobby horse from the need for riding, not because it looks like a horse. They use in new ways everything they see or experience, putting together bits that make a mosaic as fantastic as a dream but real and concrete to them. Overriding incongruity, they will tell a story with preposterous elements, like that of the little boy who "dropped his head" and went home to tell his mother in elaborate detail where it might be found. A little girl will scold her doll for not eating her dinner and then calmly proceed to eat it herself.

Like primitive man, the child attributes to natural

objects the same thoughts and feelings which move him. The wind moaning in the chimney becomes a real person to him. In fact, when we say nature smiles after a rain, or that the leaves whisper in the forest, we are only using phrases which hark back to childish imagination remote in man's history. Here we get a glimpse of what imagination has done for man in lifting him above the realm of everyday, humdrum, material things into a life of the spirit, which sees possibilities. Wherever man has conquered the elements of the animal in himself, it has been through imagination.

The mother may greatly add to or detract from her children's sense of comradeship with her by the value she puts on imagination. If we enter into a child's play with him, we double the enjoyment he gets out of it. If we respect his request not to sit on the chair where his imaginary guest is sitting, if we enter wholeheartedly into a conversation in which he takes the part of Mr. McGregor, whose garden is being ravaged by rabbits, we are adding to his fun, and at no expense in equipment or time. The mother who "thinks it is silly" to humor her child's fancy is to be pitied for having forgotten her own childhood. As a matter of fact, a mother who enters into her children's play, who is on such good terms with them that they enjoy confiding in her, is laying the foundation for such traits of character as honesty and truthfulness, according to a study of parent-child relationships made by one investigator.

There is some confusion in the minds of parents about how children may have their imagination cultivated without running the danger of losing sight of reality. Until about the age of five a child does not realize that he is imagining. Often the highly imaginative tales of the child are misinterpreted by the parent or teacher, who, having hard and fast notions of right and wrong,

cannot appreciate the fluid state of the child's ideas and beliefs. The adult does not realize that his way of looking at things is crystallized after hundreds of experiences with those facts. The mother who is perplexed to know what to say to her six-year-old when he announces, "I shot seventy gophers this morning," forgets that he has as yet very inadequate ideas of number, and that he is asking only for her appreciation of his ability as a hunter.

We must admit at the outset that the concept of truth has to be built up gradually in a child's mind. The parent who is shocked at the idea that all children must be trained to an appreciation of truthfulness has perhaps not realized the extent to which deceit is practiced in nature. Protective coloration in birds, animals, and fishes is one of the obvious methods by which the self-preservative tendency is manifested. When man conquers his impulse to get out of a tight place by deceit, a big advance over natural inclination is made. The child of two who hides her bread crusts under her plate is protecting herself from the unpleasantness of having to eat them. The child who, on being put to bed, constantly requires a drink or to be taken to the toilet, while not of course consciously lying, is building up a protective plan. He enjoys the pleasant results of being taken up; hence if his plea is yielded to, he resorts to the same or a like suggestion—anything that brings results—and subterfuge and false excuse are gradually built up.

Adults often provoke in children exactly the behavior they wish to avoid. Puzzled or scandalized parents often react to the harmless, imaginative tales of their children in such a way that the child begins to wonder what this "lie" is that he has been accused of telling. Once interest is centered on the lie, the child may take delight in

drawing fine distinctions, analyzing and sternly criticizing his own statements as did William Stern's boy, who remarked, "I said once I meant to be a doctor. But now I don't mean to at all, so that's a lie."

Care must be taken not to treat casual slips as "lies." Branding a chance misstatement or lapse of memory as "lying" fixes the event in the child's mind. The mother who overurges her children to eat vegetables is the one whose children refuse them; just so in the realm of truth-telling, we must keep in mind the possibility of urging a child into lying by overinsistence on the truth.

We must know the causes of lying before we try to develop truthful attitudes. The deviations from truth that are a result of the child's lack of experience, or childish imaginings, represent about twelve per cent of all the lies children tell. Forty-eight per cent — nearly one-half of all lies — are due to fear. Fear of physical punishment accounts for most of these lies, but fear of disapproval, of the opinion of the group, or of ridicule is a recognized cause as well. Desire for sympathy and praise prompts many children to lie. Selfish lies form a not very large proportion of children's lies; another small proportion consists of heroic lies, told in the hope of protecting someone from blame.

As children grow older they sometimes tend to prevaricate. That is, after a fairly definite idea of right and wrong is established, a child gets around the truth by qualifying his statement in some way. This kind of truth-telling, with the fingers crossed, is indicative of a stage in the individual's development comparable to the attitude of the savage, that truth is for one's friends and lies for enemies, or of warring nations, to whom all is fair that promotes their ends. This period is a passing phase in the child's life and need not cause fear in the parent who has by example and training set good standards.

ENCOURAGEMENT OF TRUTHFULNESS

The parent who expects his children to have high ideals of truth-telling must endeavor first of all to understand the child and to consider his point of view.

We have seen that a child's experience with reality is limited. In giving directions to a child, in all our explanations we must make sure that he understands what we want. Much that appears as disobedience or inattention is a result of incomplete comprehension. The classic story of little black Epaminondas, who, after his mother had warned, "Be careful how you step in dem pies!" planted a foot carefully in the middle of each pie set out to cool, is an exaggerated example of the misunderstandings that cause confusion and trouble. A child who has explicit, quiet explanation of what is expected of him is less apt to confuse right and wrong than the one who is hurriedly pushed into this or that course of action.

The child, being far less hampered than the adult by a knowledge of some things that can't happen, is ready to believe in many miraculous things that he wishes would happen. This desire in the child to see his sparkling, many-faceted mental pictures realized explains his delight in fairy tales. Observant parents will recognize in this craving a need of some ideal, something beyond the prosaic, cut-and-dried routine of his daily life. Only as we are sympathetic with this hunger in children can we lead them past an interest in mere flashy magic to the wonders in which they may have a permanent, absorbing interest. To a child whose eyes and ears are trained to appreciation, the fairy tale at length pales in interest beside the enthralling life-history of the beetle or the frog.

This applies as well to the child whose flights of fancy are often labeled as lies. A child has no idea whether the story he is telling is the truth or not. Let the child tell his imaginative tale; it may be a story of what went

on in kindergarten or during a visit, with a wealth of detail drawn entirely from the array of ideas in his head. After the outpouring has been attentively heard, he may be gently reminded that what he has told is a make-believe story and may then be urged to tell a *real* story. To cut him off abruptly, to laugh at or ridicule him, to be shocked at the ease with which the child overrides facts, is to run the risk of losing his confidence. But if a child comes freely and often to you, you may be able to get at the reason for his overuse of, and dependence on, this form of imaginative play. Perhaps it is one way that he has discovered of getting attention. Perhaps he is not making satisfactory adjustments with his playmates and is trying to throw off his depression by life in a dream world; boastful braggart lying is often the result of lack of love and appreciation.

A little child is unable to give a logical, orderly account of events. Parents often wonder why children, when asked what they did in kindergarten or on a visit, reply vaguely or not at all. From time to time, however, in the child's conversation and in his play, bits of information crop out that show that he has really remembered and been interested in what went on. When we note the wide discrepancies in the details of an occurrence told by adults who mean to be truthful and accurate, we can better appreciate the inability of the little child to recall things in time sequence. Often power of expression to tell what he has seen or heard is undeveloped as well.

Fear of the harmful effects of pronounced daydreaming leads many parents to try to curb their children's imaginations. We sometimes lose sight of the fact that much of the best in the world is the product of fruitful daydreaming. It is unfruitful daydreaming that we want to avoid. If we see a child tending to take refuge in daydreaming rather than to meet a problem—resort to a

book, for example, because "the other boys won't play fair" — we should be on the alert to find a solution. The rationalization that has taken form in the child's assertion that the other boys are to blame is a lie, though of course not a conscious one on the child's part.

If we want to build up courage we must show the child that we trust him. Here again we have an illustration of the impossibility of depending on the natural consequences of an act as a punishment. Suppose a child has told an untruth. The natural result would be that the child's word would be doubted on other occasions. But if we begin to show suspicion as to the veracity of the child, we open the door to trouble. The child who feels that his word is questioned is in danger of becoming a confirmed liar, for defiance and bravado are the natural stronghold of one who feels himself alone. The child who has lost his parents' confidence may easily feel, "Oh well, what's the use, I might as well tell what suits my convenience."

Harsh punishment should be avoided. The impulse of the parent who catches his child in a lie is to punish so severely that it will not happen again. Looking back at the causes which have been found to lie at the bottom of children's lies, we see how unwise such a course is. Instead of succeeding in making the child appreciate the importance of truthfulness, we are only too likely to make him fear us, instead. Just as the child who is punished for an act by being shut up in a dark closet may not only continue to act the same but also develop a fear of the dark, so a child who is severely punished for lying often continues to tell lies, and also develops a fear of the parent which makes him more successful in covering up his undesirable behavior another time. In a study in which more honest and less honest children were compared, it was noticeable that there was more severity on the part of the parents of the children who were found

to be less truthful. In such cases the parent who considers that his punishment is helping the child is actually teaching his child to be deceitful.

Even when the punishment is not severe, the manner of the parent or adult often frightens a child into a protective stand. Two little girls of four and two years were left alone in the room with a lighted Christmas tree. When an adult stepped back into the room, the tree was dark. On examination, she found one of the bulbs had been broken. "Which of you broke this bulb?" she demanded, without stopping to think. Upset by her manner, both the children denied having touched the bulbs. A more tactful approach would undoubtedly have brought the information with no difficulty.

Much of this *teaching* of deceit goes on as a result of the adult's desire to make the child a valiant truth teller. Often we force a child into a lie when we might have helped him to tell the truth. Never to question, "*Why* did you do so and so?" or "*Did* you do this or that?" is a safe rule. The more gentle method of, "How did this happen?" or "Couldn't you wait to ask mother before you took that cake?" is less provocative of a defensive attitude in the child. What is the point of getting a child to say he did something that we already know he did?

But is untruthfulness to go unpunished, someone inquires. If by doing so we can insure the child's growth in truth-telling, yes. It is safer to overlook a slight fault than to risk making it bigger by wrong handling. If we punish a child who has confessed to a misdeed when a lie would, temporarily at least, have saved the day for him, his tendency will not be toward confession the next time.

Our efforts should be directed at obviating any need for lying. Attention should be centered on the happiness that arises from truthfulness and honesty rather

than on the possible black future looming up before the liar.

Exact methods by which such desirable traits as truthfulness and integrity may be built up are yet to be found. For a long time investigators have been busy with the problem of what character is, and the results of their studies so far have pointed out that it is by no means an armor of behavior that can be fitted on by any specific procedures. What we so lightly speak of as character is in reality a sort of Joseph's coat of many colors, patched together by the many and varied experiences through which an individual passes. Each person develops so many ways of reacting that it would be unfair and absurd to predict from his actions in one situation what they would be in another. A woman may be lavish in her charities and at the same time treat her servants in a stingy and grudging manner. A man may be scrupulously honest in his business transactions and yet take delight in getting out of paying some bit of taxes. A child may cheat at school who would never dream of lying to his mother.

When circumstances force us to make a decision between right and wrong, what we do is to act as a whole chain of background experiences tells us to. If we have been punished, we shall be wary of traps; if we are bright we are sure to act differently than if we are dull-witted; if we have developed feelings of strong allegiance or habits of obedience toward a particular person, we may act as we think he would, or as he would want us to. In any case, our decision is the result of a composite mass of motivations.

It is sometimes assumed that while we should be lenient with little children, there comes a time when they should "know better," a date, we might say, by which time they should have developed discretion and judgment. Careful and thorough studies have brought

out the fact that no great or sudden changes are to be expected in children's behavior. Children are not truthful and honest, or untruthful and dishonest, at any age. They commit dishonest acts and speak untruths under certain circumstances. What a child will learn as habitual reactions depends upon his experience. If he is allowed to "get by" when cheating at games, he will learn that particular reaction to the game situation. One thing is certain; although his knowing the right thing to do may not result in his automatically doing it, he cannot form a habit of making good moral judgments without a knowledge of the desirable thing to do.

Above all else, the patterns of his family life will influence him. The environment in which he happens to be—that is, the friends he makes, the group he sees in school, the teachers he listens to, the kind of neighborhood in which he lives—all these are factors. Not even the finest family training, for instance, can be expected entirely to ward off the malign influences of the so-called delinquency areas in Chicago. Children brought up amid social conditions quite unadapted to their welfare are almost bound to bear the marks of such buffetings.

Each child's individual strength of reaction will also have much to do with the habits he builds up. Some children react strongly, others weakly, to almost any kind of stimulus they come up against. The kind of brains a child has will play a big part, too. As Vernon Jones puts it, "although the gift of good intelligence does not guarantee adequate moral responses, such a gift, plus all the other advantages and opportunities which usually go with it, does give one a better chance to acquire high moral behavior."

If we are to develop ideals of honor and truth in the child, honesty in the adults surrounding him is imperative. The average adult thinks of himself as truthful, thinking little of the omissions, evasions, and exaggera-

tions in his daily speech and behavior, which are, nevertheless, reacting critically on the child. A mother was heard to tell proudly how her boy got up at six o'clock to study; her husband's quiet interposition, "Nearer seven, isn't it?" indicated that her exaggeration was not occasional but habitual. A traveling salesman, coming home from his work a day early now and then, was careful not to answer the telephone, instructing his children what to say if he was asked for. In such instances as these we can expect habits of subterfuge and cunning to develop in the children, whose sensibilities daily become more and more blunted by such contacts.

An investigation of character education in children, conducted by Hartshorne and May, brought out suggestions of value to parents. They found that "parental discord and parental indulgence in questionable practices are closely related to delinquency in children."

Virtually all parents make threats that they do not carry out, that they have not even a momentary intention of carrying out. Not all parents threaten their children with being sent to an orphanage or with the bogie man, but on many occasions they fail to deny the child privileges which they have repeatedly stipulated were not to be enjoyed if the child did thus and so. What are such threats but lies? And what effect do they have on the child but to lessen, increasingly, his trust and dependence on the parents' word? Recent studies of children's lies have brought out the fact that as children grow older they listen less and less to the precepts laid down by parents but become increasingly observant as to whether the parents' behavior coincides with the ideals which have earlier been implanted in their minds. As we saw in the last chapter, children's questions should be dealt with frankly if the parent hopes to maintain the child's confidence. If a child is jokingly put off with half-truths and quibbles, he is less and less likely

to apply to that person for information or to consider him as a source.

To summarize, we may say a child's imagination should be stimulated along useful lines, together with careful training in discrimination between fact and fancy; that overindulgence in daydreams, wild imaginings, or habitual misstatements should be looked upon as a symptom of unhappiness or poor adjustment in the child; that finding the cause of untruthfulness is of more importance than the application of punishment; and that without honest behavior in the surrounding adults, other constructive planning is fruitless.

QUESTIONS

1. Give an instance of lying associated with the instinct of self-preservation.
2. With what instinctive emotional reaction is lying closely associated?
3. Would you consider an occasional falsehood serious in a four-year-old? In a ten-year-old? Why?
4. How would you go about giving a three-year-old training in accurate observation?
5. Under what conditions is daydreaming harmful?
6. Is it harmful for a child to play with an imaginary companion? Does the presence of one always imply that the child needs more playmates?

Chapter 14

PLAY

To most people, the word *play* implies something quite different from its meaning to the observer who knows that a child's play is to him "the most serious thing in the world." This confusion has arisen in the minds of adults partly because they think of the child's play as similar to that of the adult. The adult's play or recreation is a relief from work; in the life of a child play assumes the importance that adults accord to work alone.

THEORIES OF PLAY

Many theories of play have been advanced. An early idea, that the child uses up his excess energy in play, is shown to be fallacious by the fact that children play to the point of exhaustion. The theory that in play the child rehearses the life activities of primitive man takes account of the child's delight in hunting, fighting, making shelters and clothing—the activities by which early man survived. That play is a biological necessity, through which growth and development take place, seems to many to explain the joy, wholeheartedness, and universality of play. The idea of play as fostering growth and preparing the individual for life brings into harmony several theories.

Through wholesome, active play a child develops his body and builds up the vitality that is in itself a basis for a socially useful personality. He learns much through the experimentation which goes on in play, manipulation of materials, trial and error handling of objects and natural resources. Play not only builds in him a happy attitude toward work but stimulates him to mental activity. The give and take among companions on a fairly equal

basis as to age, strength, and ability has a direct value in encouraging leadership, bringing out latent possibilities and talents, and toning down characteristics which if allowed to develop might make happy relationships in the world at large impossible.

Adults fail to see the importance of play largely because they are not trained to observe children. Having almost forgotten how to play themselves, they do not know how to take advantage of the educative and character-building possibilities in connection with a child's play. As Jennings says, "In most grown-up human beings many of the inborn capabilities have been cut off; much of the native driving energy has been repressed; much of the natural delight in work has been destroyed."

The quarrel between work and play is only an apparent one. We give to "the same identical interests, when they appear in grown people, a variety of high-sounding names — such as art, science, patriotism, genius — that we never think of applying to children's play." The serious pursuit of the individual should not be a change from his earlier, self-directed activity, but a "fulfillment of the great play instincts."

If we recognized the nature of the child's play and its importance in developing his life attitudes, this would not so often happen. The child's play is, first of all, serious. He puts into it his whole power, is absorbed and intent, lost in his pursuit, whether it be that of building a block house, loading sand, or pushing his engine up an incline. The play of the child is full of meaning to him, because it is something he has initiated, it is an activity of which he sees the purpose. He learns largely by means of the satisfaction he derives from an activity; hence the educative value of spontaneous, self-induced activity which is a satisfaction in itself, quite apart from any benefit the child's habits receive.

HIS PLAY IS A KEY TO HIS DEVELOPMENT

To fill a child's needs for play to best advantage we must know what is taking place in his development. The period of growth directly following birth is, we have seen, a time of extremely rapid development and is concerned with developing the large, important arm, leg, and trunk muscles. The child is engaged in the tremendously important business of controlling muscles that help him walk, run and jump, climb and haul and push, talk, laugh, and sing, touch and taste, feel and handle as many different things in his surroundings as possible.

Play at this age should aim to give ease in motion, freedom for great physical activity, and opportunity for much absorption through the senses. There must be stairs, boxes, chairs for experimental climbing. A small, stout chair will be used more often to push, to climb on, or to carry, than to sit on. There should be wagons to pull, ropes to swing on, so that arm and back muscles as well as leg muscles may learn quick adjustments. Big balls to roll and catch, sand and water for mud pies, utensils to bang and pound with, furnish appeal to several senses. The manipulation of objects fascinates the child. He likes to drive nails into soap, to pour beans from one receptacle into another, to turn the handle of the meat grinder, or put together the separator.

How often he is expected to gain sensory and motor experience in a home where he is constantly told "not to touch!" The two-year-old who climbs on the polished dining-room table is not wantonly mischievous. Providing something to climb on is easier and more constructive than trying to check the child every time he infringes our rules, which, after all, are arbitrarily laid down for the convenience of adults.

The mother who provides opportunities for her child to help in opening and closing drawers and cupboards, in carrying dishes, in hunting for articles — in short, who

makes use of instead of trying to thwart the child's impulses—will be rewarded by fewer vexatious occurrences. Mothers often complain, "How can I interest my twelve-year-old in doing her share around the house?" In the same breath they admit that they could never put up with the child's early efforts at helping because it took so much more patience and time "to show the child how than to do it myself." To neglect these deep-lying desires is to lose an opportunity for comparatively simple learning of many good habits.

One mother discovered that her two-year-old could be handled with great ease if he were asked to "help mother"; but if by chance she suggested, "mother will help you," rebellion followed. As we saw earlier, a question as to whether we should encourage or curb the natural emotional responses in our children hinges very often on the type of environment we expect them to conform to and whether we make efforts to control the "nervousness" which underlies many of a mother's difficulties.

The second half of a child's preschool years marks a progression in his interests. Physical activity does not decline but takes form in much dramatic and representative play. Nursery rhymes that have been listened to with delight are now acted out. Playing house or store is an engrossing occupation. The constructive impulse finds an outlet in building with blocks; trains acquire stations; the domestic animals are provided with barns; doll clothing and bedding become important. Playing train or milkman, taking grocery orders over the toy telephone, doctoring the sick doll, or playing at being a rabbit or a bird—all are representations of the life about the child. His toys need not be many, but his freedom should be great. The child who is trammled by lack of space or lack of imagination in the adults around him may never enjoy that "ship upon the stairs, all built

of the back-bedroom chairs," which gave Robert Louis Stevenson such delight to recall.

ENVIRONMENT FOR PLAY

As much as possible of a child's play should be carried on out of doors. In providing play materials for children we must include two types: things which exercise the large muscles and things which stimulate mental activity. The outdoors is "the true home of childhood, in this wild, undomesticated stage from which modern conditions have kidnapped and transported him." But "for very many children, the pasture and the wood-lot have long since been sold, the climbing tree has been chopped down, the barn, even the woodshed, has disappeared." Facing this change in community life which has brought about the apartment and neighborhood playground, we must provide substitutes for those things which were before a natural part of the environment. If there are no trees to climb we must have ladders, ropes, horizontal bars. The modern child has no sandy creek to play in, but the narrowest city lot is roomy enough to include a sandbox. Every child should have packing boxes to clamber into, or use for store or house if there is no place for a shack or dugout.

Indoor play space is as important. The mother who prepares to sacrifice for a few years some of her ideas of orderliness and beauty in order that the child may have freer surroundings may be rewarded by a calm child with good muscular coordination. In the household where polished surfaces and bric-a-brac are of immediate importance an unstable, irritable child is only too likely to result from the clamor of *don'ts*. A punching bag or a trapeze, fitted up in a doorway or on a cellar beam, furnishes an outlet for energy which oftentimes spills over into behavior annoying to adults. If there is no attic or basement to be converted to the children's use, the fur-

nishings of their rooms must be so simple that no qualms will be felt when they get hard use. This does not imply that a child should be encouraged in rough or destructive play. His energy and interests may be building up either good or bad habits, depending on the selection of materials and toys he has and the place where he uses them.

DRAMATIC PLAY

We must not forget at this period a child's joy in song and story. Nursery rhymes and lullabies have been part of his daily life for a long time; but now he craves stories of the life he knows, with a gradual widening of his horizon to include activities with which he is not familiar. Many parents become discouraged and say, "My child does not enjoy being read to," when the fault is in the material read. First stories must be extremely simple, with a large element of repetition, and many pictures. Stories that can be acted, like *Little Black Sambo*, or songs which lend themselves to dramatization, like *Little Brown Seed*, are much enjoyed. (See Chapter 16, on books and music, for selected lists of material for children.)

HABITS ARE BUILT BY PLAY

Many good habits are encouraged by carefully planned play. Children who are busy with something that interests them have not much time for aimless fooling, for teasing or quarreling. Employment with materials that are constructive, that require effort, induces real thinking. If toys and play materials are bought or made with this in mind, concentration and purpose enter into the child's life. The child who at three has a good hammer and nails, a saw and boards, begins by trial and error learning to acquire habits of workmanship which will serve him well. On the other hand,

flimsy, cheap toys, tools that do not work, build habits of irritation and frustration, leading in the direction of carelessness and destructiveness. Too many toys lead to much the same results; extravagance and fickleness are bred in place of the concentration which is developed in connection with a few playthings, carefully chosen. Materials such as blocks, sand, clay, wood, paper, cardboard, which can be changed and modified to meet the constantly growing needs of the child, should be substituted for mechanical toys which leave little or nothing for the child to do.

It is important that we keep in mind, when selecting or planning for toys, the growing and changing needs of the child. Too often the eye of the adult is caught by playthings which are of only passing interest to children. To be of value, equipment and materials should be of permanent and lasting nature and should be readily adaptable by the child as he develops. Blocks furnish a splendid basis for developmental play because they lend themselves to so many uses. Wooden animals, which can be used in building up a farm, furnish a nucleus around which the child may gather interesting and constructive material. Parents are sometimes discouraged because their children fail to use expensive equipment, not realizing that the fault lies in their selection rather than in the child. To a boy of seven a meccano set has fascinating possibilities; to a child of four it is a combination of odds and ends, which he juggles about a bit and then loses piece by piece.

Stanley Hall's famous *Story of a Sandpile* is the perennially fresh illustration of how an interest may grow and spread for years. The village which the boys built and added to summer after summer absorbed leisure time, developed superior craftsmanship, and encouraged a cooperative spirit which must later have had its influence on the boys' lives in their communities.

To summarize:

1. Play equipment should include things which involve the use of the large muscles and things which stimulate to creative effort.

2. Materials and playthings should be developmental rather than of a merely passing appeal. The child should have some difficulties to encounter, but if his equipment is unsuited to his age, discouragement and boredom follow. The habit of success in dealing with materials is important if the child is to try out new ideas.

3. A variety should be provided in order that new sensations may stimulate new activity. Children constantly discover new uses for the same playthings, provided those playthings have been selected with the growth of the child in view.

4. Variety of experience is desirable. A young child should not be overstimulated or excited by manifold activities; but the modern home does not provide material for learning such as is found in factories, farms, zoos, stores, etc.

5. Play must have a purpose. The care of pets furnishes lessons in sympathy. A garden makes evident to the child the need of system and order and forethought.

6. A child learns to care for his belongings by using them. Provide shelves and closets easily accessible to the child. If it is the fixed custom of the household that a child put away one group of materials before beginning other activities he will learn lessons of orderliness and neatness.

7. Lessons in sharing, in taking turns, in playing the game fairly are the valuable contributions of early group play. The child who has not learned to play with other children before he goes to school will have a double problem of adjustment to the new situation.

8. Play of children should be supervised but not interfered with. Interruptions and suggestions from adults or much older children add to rather than lessen the friction. Each child should stand on his own feet, without constant recourse to his mother to settle difficulties.

9. Play interests if wisely directed become the future avocations which provide for wholesome use of leisure time in adolescence and adult life. Early aptitudes in constructive ability, in music, or interest in birds and animals should be watched for and cultivated with this in mind.

In providing toys for children, some from each of the following classes should be included:

1. *Equipment that stimulates physical activity*

Young children need much active, outdoor play that will encourage the development of lungs and muscles. In buying or making equipment for the young child ask yourself, will this material be used in a variety of ways, over quite a period of time? A few things that can be used in many connections are better than many odds and ends. Thus, large blocks will be used from babyhood up into school age; a good stuffed animal becomes a family pet; a blackboard, used only for scrawling by the two-year-old, becomes a useful tool to the eight-year-old.

For the baby and the toddler

Large ball	Doorway swing and horizontal bar
Walking-board 2" x 4" x 8'	Paper for tearing or crumpling
Kiddie-kar	
Low slide, steps to climb	
Stout chair	

For the child from two to six

Wagon, sled, skis, toboggan	Ladder, swing, see-saw
Doll-carriage	Large hollow floor blocks 6" x 6" x 24" of $\frac{3}{4}$ " stock, painted to protect from weather, two small holes or slits drilled in each end to prevent warping, and make handling easier.
Wheelbarrow	
Large sand and dump trucks	
Velocipede	
Football	
Games (as bean bags, ring-toss, etc.)	

2. *Materials encouraging sensory and artistic development*

Babies learn much through their senses, before they can ask questions. Provide materials that appeal to all the senses. Color, sound, manipulation to see how things work are parts of the child's education.

For the baby and the toddler

Rattle, tinker-toys	Nest of blocks or boxes
Train of flat wooden blocks hooked together	Peg boards with very large pegs
Stuffed animals	Push and pull toys

Wood, potatoes, soap for pounding nails	Pans, covers, clothespins, etc.
Rubber apron (for play at kitchen sink)	Washable dolls

For the child from two to six

Table (kitchen table with legs sawed off is suit- able)	Loom for weaving Large paper for drawing, cutting, and construction
Stout chair that conforms to orthopedic standards (saddle seat, low enough so feet touch the floor)	Large six-sided crayons Blackboard (placed low on wall)
Plasticene or clay	Dustless chalk
Show card colors, alabas- tine, or paints that do not stain clothing	Easel Blunt scissors with good cutting edges
Instruments for enjoyment of music—tambourines, cymbals, triangles, drums, victrola and records, casta- nets, bells, xylophones, rhythm sticks, and chimes.	
Pictures to tack on walls, also to cut from magazines.	

3. *Materials for manipulative, imitative, and dramatic play*

As early as the second year, many children begin to take delight in imaginative play. While they do not need a great many toys to carry out their dramatic play, a few of various kinds will serve as a basis for it. Thus, a truck can be used by a boy playing farmer, coalman, or grocer.

Playthings should be selected with the idea in mind: Does this fit in with things the child already has, and stimulate their use? Is its interest long-lasting or only temporary?

Domestic animals (horses, cows, pigs, sheep, etc.) of durable composition or wood, for farmyard play; also wild animals (tigers, lions, giraffes, etc.) for zoo and circus play.

Blocks and boards for barns, fences, stations, stores, etc. Stout small trucks, airplanes, boats, plows, tractors, engines, etc.

Dishes and kitchen utensils large enough for actual use by children.

Washing equipment—tubs, washing and ironing boards, clothespins and line, basket, nonelectric iron and stove.

Broom, dustmop, nonelectric vacuum cleaner, telephone.



Safe adventure on the jungle gym.

Reproduced by courtesy of the *Minneapolis Star-Journal*.



A packing box makes a fine playhouse.
Reproduced by courtesy of the *Minneapolis Star-Journal*.

Doll bed (strong enough for child to sit on), drawers, trunk or suitcase for doll-clothes.

Dolls of various sizes, not omitting large, cuddly rag doll that can wear real baby clothes.

Low folding screen, or two or three wall-board partitions (3' x 4', in light wooden frame, so braced that they stand alone, with holes cut for windows and door), to block off a corner for housekeeping play.

Left-over household material

Cartons, boxes, spools, cans, etc.; extra wall paper, cellophane, tissue, corrugated paper; ribbons, cotton and wool cloth, small and large sacks; wheels, curtain-rods, etc.

Sandbox

As it will be used from babyhood up to nine or ten years, a fairly large box is advisable. A frame 4' x 4', or larger if there is space, with a six-inch board around the top, to serve as a seat, is satisfactory. A hinged, sloping cover to keep out animals is desirable and will serve as a "cellar-door" slide.

An indoor sand- or sawdust-box for winter use is advisable only when it can be so placed that the child is not nagged about spilling. A sandbox in a sunny basement, or on a porch where a child can play on stormy days, will keep him happily occupied for long periods. Sand-toys include pails, shovels, boats, molds, strainers, etc., as well as trucks and trains. Discarded kitchen utensils are especially acceptable.

Blocks for building

6 pieces 3" x 6" x 12"	6 pieces 4" x 4" x 8"
18 pieces 2" x 4" x 8"	6 triangles 2" x 8" x 8" x about
12 pieces 2" x 4" x 16"	11"
12 pieces 4" x 4" x 4"	6 boards 1" x 4" x 24"
	6 boards 1" x 8" x 24"

These, or fewer of each size, may be made at home or at a local lumber yard, and more pieces added of most frequently used sizes. They should be well sandpapered.

Tools

Hammer, saw, scroll saw of good standard make in

small sizes; nails. Garden tools—hoe, rake, spade, shovel, fork—durable enough for actual use.

Lumber

Scrap soft-wood lumber from a sash and door factory, known as “factory blocks,” are inexpensive and very satisfactory for many purposes. The odd shapes and sizes suggest a variety of uses to the imaginative child. Packing boxes or piano boxes may be hard to procure, but the delight children have in “houses” makes them, or a substitute, practically essential.

Provisions for care of equipment

Provisions for the care of a child's equipment must be made if good habits are to be formed in this respect. If no one room can be assigned as a playroom, it is essential that play space be set aside somewhere. The lower space in the clothes closet in a child's room may be fitted with shelves. If more space is wanted, open shelves, with or without plain hangings, may be built in. Downstairs, the lower drawers of a buffet or bookcase may be set aside for children's use. It is well to have some space designated as the children's in each room: a drawer in the library table, a low shelf in the kitchen, hooks and rack in the bathroom. A large box on casters, or a painted bushel basket, makes a good container for blocks, or they may be piled underneath shelves. The floor covering should be one that can easily be kept clean—linoleum if possible.

OUTDOOR PLAY EQUIPMENT THAT CAN BE MADE AT HOME

Sandbox

First on any list. A box may be of very simple construction, in a size appropriate to the age of the children using it. A frame 4' x 4', with 6" boards, laid flat around the edge to serve as a seat, is a good size.

Walking-board

Children love to “walk the plank.” Providing one for them may not keep them from walking the top of every wall they see, but it will give them added practice in balancing. Any large plank may be used. It should be 8' or 10' long, either 4" or 6" wide. Older children will enjoy walking it as a bridge between two

boxes, or with the ends propped on piles of bricks; for younger ones, it can be mounted on either two or three 4" crosspieces.

See-saw

A wider plank 10" or 12" wide and 12' or 14' long, planed, smoothed, and painted to prevent splinters, serves as the teeter board over a pipe or saw-horse. See-saw fulcrum irons and a retaining chain to prevent the board from slipping may be had from school supply or hardware stores.

Swings

Several kinds of swings will provide fun and exercise for back, arm, and leg muscles. Where no trees are available, a standard of 2" iron pipe makes a safe support. An iron pipe chained firmly between two trees makes a splendid foundation for much apparatus. From such a support, whether of wood or iron, at least 10' above the ground, may be hung a swing, a turning pole, a knotted rope, in turn or at the same time, provided the space is wide enough. The space between the uprights should be at least 6', when only one piece of apparatus is to be hung. A ladder of knotted rope is an interesting variation of the swing, especially for older children.

Ladders and steps

Though children climb "just for fun," the exercise their back and leg muscles get in this way helps their development. For the many little children nowadays who have scant opportunity to climb stairs, a set of three or four steps is a piece of apparatus that may be used indoors or out, and that will provide an almost endless amount of amusement for the one- to two-year-old. When space is limited, the part under the treads of the steps may be converted into drawers, in which the child's playthings are kept.

A short ladder of six or eight rungs, securely fastened to a wall or fence, means safe, happy climbing for the two- and three-year-old.

Slide

A homemade slide is safe if the plank is kept waxed

and smooth and free of splinters. A plank 12' long, and 18" wide, with a side rail 7" high, is advised. Two stout iron hooks on the under side of one end provide for attaching it to a bar.

Packing boxes

or their equivalent in made apparatus form the basis for much house- and store-keeping play. If of stout enough material, such boxes afford a foundation to which may be attached slide and ladders. A stationary ladder arrangement, up the side, provides a means of climbing to the top of the slide.

Tumbling mattress

from an old crib or single bed, equipped with a washable, removable cover of chintz or canvas, is a much appreciated part of the equipment of a child's room, as it may be jumped on or lolled upon to one's heart's content, and is useful out of doors as a tumbling mat.

QUESTIONS

1. If a child of four cut a tablecloth or curtain, would you (a) punish him? (b) give him suitable material to cut? (c) take away his scissors? Why?
2. At what age would you provide for a preschool child:
 - a. A harmonica?
 - b. A ball ten inches in diameter.
 - c. A saw and hammer?
 - d. A sink to play in occasionally?
 - e. Crayons and paper?
 - f. A ladder to climb?
3. How would you encourage outdoor play in an eight-year-old who preferred to read or run an electric train indoors?
4. Two parents went to much trouble to make form-board material, insets, and other things of Montessori type, but the two-and-one-half-year-old showed no interest after he had once succeeded in manipulating them. Suggest three possible reasons.
5. Nancy is not interested in getting to kindergarten on time, as she has used many of the materials provided and has had companionship, so does not crave opportunity to see other children. Suggest a way out.

Chapter 15

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

From the time a child is born he is surrounded by other human beings, and very soon he begins to react to their presence. During the first month he will stop crying when lifted or touched; in the course of the second month he smiles his first smile—his first positive response to a social situation. At this time he is as ready to smile at other persons as at his mother, and only later develops a special relation to her.

By the time a baby is three months old he is dependent on others in a new and different way than for the satisfaction of physical wants: it is their companionship he likes. When someone leaves his crib, or goes out of the room, he often sets up a clamor for attention. Or, if someone is near, he may hold out his arms or indicate by squeals and wriggles that he wants to be held.

INTEREST IN OTHER CHILDREN

Up to about six months, babies have scant attention for other babies. Perhaps this is because the babies are not moving about, not affording such active or noisy stimuli as children or grownups. At any rate, before this time only a speculative stare greets the baby who will hereafter be an object of growing interest.

At first, babies will look at one another for a moment, then let their attention drift. A bit later they may quite actively compete for the possession of toys, pull each other's hair, or poke at one another. They will laugh gleefully over one another's antics, and show great excitement over their own image in a mirror, or over a picture of a baby. Not until after they are a year old, however, can one baby be said really to play with another, social participation of this sort being limited by inability to move about freely.

One other child is all a baby of this age can attend to. It seems to be too much for him to be one of a larger group until he is two. Then he will occasionally play with two or even three other children. Although children at this early age are socially inclined, much of their play goes along parallel rather than cooperative lines. That is, two youngsters may be playing with the same kind of toy, but they are far from being two minds with but a single thought as to how that toy shall be used. Instead, each goes his own independent way with sand pail or kiddie-kar. Neither can as yet be said to be "playing with" the other in the sense of carrying on a cooperative activity with him.

When interest in cooperative play begins to arise, it is well to provide types of play material that will encourage social contacts. Because some toys induce such play more readily than others, it is especially important to provide such things as a sand pile, blocks, a playhouse or play-corner, a see-saw or other apparatus that is operated by two or more children. In using these things children gradually build up the ability to help one another, to wait for their turns, to accept suggestions, and to share their possessions in the interest of better fun.

Thus, while the two-year-old who goes to nursery school plays alone or watches a group of older children, he will when he is three and four join in the play with increasing interest and ability to adapt to the wishes of others. By the time he is five he will have made such enormous strides in cooperation that he can take part in a group project of building, or of playing a game with a number of others.

SOCIAL NEEDS AND WAYS OF LEARNING

If we ask what it is that makes a child respond to the presence of others, what it is that sets off the behavior that will result eventually in his being part of a

social group, we find that first of all the warmth of human companionship is as necessary to his development as is the fulfillment of his physical needs. It is a well-known fact that babies in institutions pine for lack of the individual attention, the caresses, and fondling that are their natural right. Physical helplessness is largely what prompts a baby's first overtures to adults, but when it comes to other children, it is a matter of sharing common interests. Joy over a ball that must be run after, or delight in a toy animal that makes a noise, can be better entered into by another child than by an adult.

All is not smooth sailing when two children who are still almost babies try to play together. Conflict such as hair-pulling, biting, and screaming is only to be expected when they try for the possession of a toy. No child of two or even of four can be what we call "socialized." At these ages children are still pretty raw little creatures, with strong desires that they are intent on satisfying at the expense of anyone who comes across their path.

The quarreling that goes on among young children represents their trial and error efforts at learning to deal with people. It should not unduly distress the mother who realizes that children must try out their wills and ideas against those of others. Amusingly enough, it has been observed in nursery school that children who are much attached to each other quarrel more than those who are comparatively indifferent. Quarrels at these age levels are of exceedingly brief duration, without after-effects of sullenness or antagonism.

When squabbles end in victory first for one, then for the other, interference will only delay learning how to settle disputes. If one child constantly gains the ascendancy over another, care should be taken lest the weaker become more and more dependent on outside aid in fighting his battles instead of learning to be resourceful enough to establish his rights. Such a child,

instead of being shielded, should be helped to find things that he can do well, so that he can feel secure in his own accomplishments.

The speed and ease with which children acquire behavior that is acceptable according to the rules of civilized society will be measured by their environment, and much more by the persons in that environment than by the material things. Thus if a child is so much admired by his adoring relatives that they consider his antics to get his own way "cute," he may have to unlearn a number of habits later. Another child who carries on his play entirely alone will come to have an exaggerated idea of "my" and "mine" in relation to his playthings. One who plays with children very far removed from himself in age will have his tendencies toward submission or bossiness emphasized, as the case may be.

Very early in life a child begins to establish relationships between himself and others. He is masterful with baby sister, worshipful of the neighbor's big boy, docile with grandma. Innate tendencies toward aggression and power make one child a leader among children, and a naturally pliant disposition makes another favorable to the suggestions of playmates as to the games he takes part in and the plays that are initiated. As early as three or four a child may be showing definite ability to manage other children. If his ideas are original and interesting and if he is tactful the others in his group may greatly enjoy helping to work out his plans. One child in a group may be found taking the lead in as many as 65 per cent of the situations of which he is a part, while another takes the initiative in only 5 per cent of all those in which he is involved.

While it would not be a good thing for any child always to assume command, it strengthens a child's individuality and power of attack on life to be able to assert himself successfully over persons and things. This sug-

gests the desirability of arranging for children to play among others as nearly as possible their own age. Children who are much older or so much younger as to make domination easy offer fewer constructive possibilities.

FRIENDS AND COMPANIONS

The development of friendship in children is a topic of interest to parents and teachers because of the influence on personality exerted by chums and companions. Even very young children prefer to play with children of their own age. As children become more mature, this liking for companions of similar capabilities is shown in a pronounced way, in the gravitation toward one another of children of like mental age. While of course the friendships of young children are definitely limited by the resources of the near neighborhood, it will be found that the brighter children of a given age level enjoy one another, that those of average mentality tend to flock together, and the duller ones play with younger children if they cannot find companionship at their own ages.

From these facts it is evident that parents cannot do a great deal in the way of choosing their children's companions. They can settle in a neighborhood where there are other children of as nearly as possible the same age, they can pick out a location where the conditions for play are adequate, but when it comes to selecting the children who will be formative influences in their children's lives, they have little to say. Like seeks like, and each child will be happier in the circle where he feels most at ease and free to express himself.

Parents sometimes complain that there is a child in the neighborhood with whom they do not want their child to associate, for fear he will pick up the undesirable habits they have found so objectionable. Under such circumstances a child can be encouraged to play in his own yard, where his mother can supervise the play

somewhat and hold the child of less desirable habits to the standards agreed upon as acceptable. Most children will make an effort to conform rather than be ostracized from companionship.

The strongly social bent which makes children so much desire the company of others is shown from the early years, and in a number of ways. First of all it is noticeable in the beginnings of cooperative play that can be seen in the sand pile, or at the swing, when children find that it is more fun to have someone to exchange ideas with, someone who will sometimes make and sometimes follow suggestions. This rudimentary cooperative play finds outlet in the circle games in which each child takes a turn at having a central part in the play. From the age of four or five until about ten, children play tag, running and hiding games, and in many other ways become a part of group activity. From this time on, the specific function of each becomes more and more noticeable. When boys first play baseball no particular skill has been developed by any one of them as batter or catcher. But gradually special interests and skills are evolved by each, so that by the time adolescence is reached one is known as good at this, another at that, special activity.

Another indication of the strength of the social inclination is given by the number of different plays and games in which children take part, as well as their interest in group play. They find time for everything during their school years, whereas later their interests will have become channeled into deeper grooves, and there will be less time left to devote to a variety of interests. A nine-year-old takes part habitually in as many as forty different types of play, whereas the greater amount of time spent at those things which have become of absorbing interest makes it possible for the sixteen-year-old to take part in only half as many activities.

By the age of nine or ten, children begin to form rather closely knit groups, and clubs or gangs become a nucleus for many activities. A place to house activities becomes important, and boys build shacks, dig caves, rig up the basement or the garage to form a setting for their group play. Girls are not quite so dependent on group enjoyment, but they too form many clubs, often short-lived.

Especially does the gang idea hold precedence in communities where there are few natural or desirable play outlets. Indeed, Thrasher, who studied this phase of boys' life exhaustively, has called the gang "the spontaneous effort of boys to create a society where none adequate to their needs exists." The true gang is a more solidly grouped organization than the gathering of neighborhood boys who get together to play baseball, to build a boat, or carry on some other natural and desirable occupation. The gang meets because some way must be devised of spending time, and the group gradually develops traditions on the basis of whatever activities arise. A morale and group loyalty is built up, so that, although the gang interests may not be those of society, there is a bond among the members of the gang because of the opposition they meet in their endeavors to fill their own needs.

A study made in Chicago brought out the fact that delinquency is distinctly concentrated in the Loop district, that part of town where there are few parks and playgrounds, where the homes of the boys are not inviting places to play in, where almost anything boys do—even playing in the street—is mischief. A tendency for delinquency to decrease toward the outskirts of town is evidence of the direct relationship between conduct and adequacy of play facilities.

The needs that so often find outlet in undesirable activities can be met by the organizations engaged in

planning for children, the Cub Scouts and Brownies for younger children, the Boy and Girl Scouts and Camp-fire Girls, and the Sea Scouts and Mariners, for older boys and girls. Under these auspices, with a certain degree of supervision, boys and girls both find an escape from the artificial and irksome restraints of their everyday life and at the same time build up wholesome habits of cooperation and loyalty.

ATTITUDES TOWARD ADULTS

The stages through which a child passes in his relations with adults make an interesting study. While a tiny baby may display rebellion toward the adult who is undressing him or washing him, his rage is directed not at the person but at the blocking and thwarting that he is undergoing. Because of their almost complete helplessness and inability to do anything for themselves, babies tend toward a passive relationship with the adults who care for them. Not until they begin to be interested in holding a spoon and feeding themselves, or in getting something an adult does not want them to have, can they be said to begin to build up resistance. When a baby has advanced to the stage of being cooperative in trying to put his arm into a sleeve, or wanting to hold the cup from which he drinks, advantage should be taken of his desire to do for himself. Even if it were unimportant to encourage habits of independence and self-help, it would still be desirable to let a child do as much for himself as possible, because of the danger, otherwise, of his developing feelings of antagonism and opposition toward the adults who surround him.

Between the ages of two and three, as a matter of fact, a baby seems to pass through a period of "resistance against adult influence and striving for power and independence." This is often described as "negativism," and is more fully discussed under the subject of disci-

pline, in Chapter 11. Our interest here in this phenomenon has to do with its effect on the child's social relationships, which may be far-reaching if the negativism is carelessly handled.

In so far as it represents a child's striving to make a place for himself in the world as he knows it, it is a perfectly healthy and natural thing. If, however, he is balked at every turn, his natural desire to get along without a great deal of assistance may curdle into obstinate delight in foiling and thwarting the wishes and commands of his parents. The parent who says, "The only way I can get my child to do a thing is to tell him not to do it," is admitting that he has approached the guidance of his child's independence wrong end to.

The desire to be on pleasant terms with others is just as strong in the child as in the adult. If his obvious delight in his own power over others is not magnified by too much attention, or by punishment, he will soon adjust himself to his new-found status, and cheerfully cooperate in what may reasonably be expected of him. The four- or five-year-old who has been wisely handled during the time when he was increasingly able to get about alone and do things for himself shows a friendly attitude toward the adults in his environment which augurs well for his future work and play relations.

It is quite as possible for a child to build up too great dependence upon his parents as resistance against them. Extremely intimate and clinging relations between mother and child are to be deplored, because of the likelihood that they will prevent the development of easy and natural relations with individuals outside the home. A child who has been too much with his mother fears and dislikes kindergarten; the boy or girl who has been encouraged to continue childish dependence on parents past its natural limits finds himself or herself terribly homesick on going away to college.

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS AT SCHOOL

The first opportunity a child has to try to make social adjustments on a large scale comes when he enters school. After being an extremely important member of a small group, his own family, he suddenly becomes an insignificant and unimportant member of a group of thirty or forty children. The gasps and splashings that the small child makes when thrown into the cold water of this new environment are probably as bewildering to himself as they are to his parents and the onlookers. Because human beings need to feel safe and secure, attempts to establish an equilibrium will be made. A child who has been noisy and aggressive at home may appear meekly angelic when subdued by the group pressure. One whose behavior has not been marked in any way may develop blustering, arrogant ways, in an attempt to impress himself on his new comrades. In any case, new and sometimes striking behavior may be expected.

Among birds and beasts a creature outstandingly different from his kind is likely to be ostracized, and human children are quite as quick to notice differences and call attention to them. A kind of protective coloring is necessary to a child. He wants to be like his companions, not to stand out too much from them, either favorably or unfavorably. If he is dressed differently from other children he runs the risk of being twitted and laughed at. If he is too bright he may be called "teacher's pet." If he is slow he will drop behind his class at school and have the finger of scorn pointed at him.

His social practice at school and at play will, consciously or not, have for its goal the establishment of himself as a person on equal terms with his group. But before he can expect to be accepted as a member of his group he must show them that he has capabilities. Children show little if any tendency toward competition until they have had so many opportunities for observ-

ing that it is expected of them that we cannot say whether or not it is an inborn trait. Soon after they enter school, however, if not before, they find that their abilities and contributions are frequently measured against those of their mates. Marks, sports, the social and business life of their parents, all serve to emphasize the importance of being earnest in the realization of their powers.

Little boys often try to impress other little boys with their physical prowess. Their truculence during their first years in school often alarms their mothers, who have spent a good deal of time trying to teach their children that physical blows are not the most desirable means of settling difficulties. The six-year-old who has been conscientiously taught never to use his fists to protect his rights may have a hard time before he hits on some scheme of proving to the other boys that he can give as well as take it.

Doing well in their school work is more likely to appeal to girls than to boys as a sound way of establishing themselves. The esteem of their teachers is of more importance to them, too, and the results are seen in the higher marks they receive and the greater application noticeable in them. It is only natural that the kinds of social approval sought by girls and by boys should be different.

SOCIAL RELATIONS BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS

As we have already seen, even preschool-age children prefer to play with others of their own sex. While a boy and a girl may play quite happily together during this period, many of their interests are already different enough so that another boy or another girl would be better fitted to share them. It is impossible to say how far these differences in interest reflect training, and how far they represent innate sex deviations. Some girls

never care to play much with dolls, some boys are keenly sensitive to things usually considered essentially feminine. But similarities in the interests of boys and girls so far outweigh dissimilarities as to make social relations between the sexes in the early years a good basis for building up sympathy and intelligent understanding.

Though there comes a time, from about nine or ten until twelve or thirteen, when boys and girls play together very little, there is little danger of the development of awkwardness and embarrassment at this period and later if earlier relations have been free and natural. Parents are sometimes to blame for thwarting a child's impulses toward companionship with the opposite sex, in the mistaken belief that these things should "come later." In many instances the establishment of natural and normal attitudes toward the opposite sex has been interfered with by a parent's desire to keep his daughter "a little girl," or by laughter and derision over his son's efforts at making himself attractive to girls.

Children who are experiencing marked physical changes need all the assurance they can get that not only their appearance, but also their new desires and impulses, are wholly normal and to be expected. They need many opportunities for natural, friendly contacts with children of the opposite sex at a time when they are acutely conscious of their deficiencies in a social way. The painful and excessive timidity, the loud, brash behavior, the exaggerated attention given the question of clothes, are all symptoms indicative of deep-lying needs.

With the approach of puberty, that landmark in a child's life which denotes sexual maturity, changes appear in his social behavior, occasioned both by the physical and psychological changes going on within him. It has been observed that during this prepuberal stage children are likely to engage less in group play. Among



Teen-age boys are absorbed in the marvels of television.

from *All the Children*, 37th Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, City of New York.



Quiet, please! The French class is going on the air.

Reproduced by courtesy of the *Washington Evening Star*.

girls the tendency to withdraw somewhat from the group may be noticed between the ages of eleven and thirteen; among boys, from thirteen to fifteen. This difference between boys and girls is accounted for by the fact that general development proceeds somewhat more rapidly in girls than in boys. Thus, while about a third of American girls mature at the age of thirteen, the signs of pubescence in boys are unlikely to be present until they are fifteen.

Not all children exhibit any marked social changes at this time, but the occurrence of a negative phase and self-isolation may appear as a child's reaction to his little understood feelings. The girl who withdraws from her family, who likes to be alone a good deal, and who seeks out one friend in place of the many companions she has played with in the past will, if given the encouragement of friendly sympathy, if attention is not drawn to her behavior by oversolicitude—which amounts in her eyes to unfair prying into her personal life—presently renew her earlier social attitudes. Having found herself as a person she will, however, be less likely to confide in her mother than she was as a little girl, and will tend to reserve her inner thoughts and feelings for the ear of her best friend, or for the pages of her diary.

Furfey, working with boys, found that a change in companions is one of the most marked alterations noticeable in the boy who is passing through the period prior to adolescence. Boys who have matured almost always seek the companionship of other boys who have gone through the same changes, although they may go back to earlier chums when the latter, too, have reached puberty.

Dependence on one close friend, while associating freely with a number of less intimate ones, gives us a clue to the change in the meaning of friendship that

comes with adolescence. For while younger children have their strong preferences when it comes to companions, they do not depend on their playmates for the same things as do older children, whose personalities and interests have developed to the point where they desire the interchange of more than surface sympathies.

Along with this search for thoroughly congenial friends goes a longing for someone to admire and look up to. Hero worship in the case of the school child usually means the setting up of some hero or heroine of fiction or some individual currently popular because of his outstanding achievements. The older boy and girl may slavishly copy the behavior of a teacher, a movie star, a somewhat older boy or girl, or some famous person who seems to sum up all they would like to do or be. This tendency toward hero worship suggests the importance of giving youth opportunities for acquainting itself with the highest. At a time when ideals are being formed, when emotion is at high tide, boys and girls need heroes and heroines who are worthy of their emulation. The stories they read, the movies they see, the ministers they listen to, the camp directors they are under, will all have a profound influence on the type of social contribution they will make during their adult years.

SUMMARY

From observations of how the social behavior of a child progresses from very simple manifestations in babyhood to the complicated social relations of later childhood, we can see that social adjustment is a matter of learning and habit formation quite as much as any other phase of a child's life. Because throughout life each of us is dependent for his welfare and happiness on the relations he establishes with other people, it is important that the social reactions of children be guided carefully.

Various stages in social growth will be noted. Much of the earliest learning a baby is asked to acquire is in the direction of inhibition and restraint. Learning not to make too much noise, not to trespass on other people's property or rights, refraining from indulgence of one's own desires at others' expense, are some of the first things we expect of young children. If parents and others responsible for the training of little children are not cautious, they may, in setting up prohibitions, bring about habits of too great docility. To help a child to know when to conform and when to make constructive contributions of his own should be our aim.

Throughout the years of childhood the learning of co-operation is going on through plays and games, through daily contacts with other children of varying ages and temperaments, by means of situations in which a teacher, a neighbor, a doctor, or some other adult provides a problem in human relationships. Because that individual who best understands others' feelings and desires stands the best chance of getting along with other people we will be encouraging a child's success in social relations when we stimulate in him an interest in the motives and emotions of others.

The importance of this becomes increasingly apparent when we remember that maladjustment implies that an individual has not learned his relative place in the scheme of things. He has not learned that life is a journey away from the self-centered dependency of infancy. He expects other persons to make contributions to his happiness and well-being and sulks when his every mood and desire are not catered to.

To avoid the establishment of such unhealthy habits we should be careful to treat children as objectively as possible, lest they derive pleasure from turning their thoughts inward and spend too much time thinking about themselves. This means a curtailment of solici-

tude on the part of parents; for if those immediately surrounding a child are forever showing their concern about him, it is only natural that he should come to have an exaggerated idea of his own importance and give little attention to the thoughts and desires of his associates.

Another step in the building up of a wholesome personality is the promotion of successful, happy relations with others in early childhood, by means of which the child is gradually able to enter upon a wider and wider range of social contacts. This means encouraging a child to mingle freely in the give and take of neighborhood play; to take part in school activities of various sorts, to get the benefit of club and group work; to go to camp, where learning to mix is as important a part of what goes on as is tennis or swimming. It means encouraging him to read widely, in order that he may gain knowledge about how other people live and act and think.

One of the best services we can do a child is to help him understand that he cannot live to himself alone. In a world so complicated that each of us is dependent on the cooperation of nine hundred other persons every time he wants a pair of shoes, it stands to reason that happiness and social adjustment are inseparable.

QUESTIONS

1. Harriet, a girl of eleven, is very much cast down when others excel her at school. She is never content unless she is the best at a game or at her lessons. Suggest some possible explanations of this habitual reaction, also how it might be changed.
2. Timothy, aged five, is so shy that it is painful for him to go to another child's party. He longs to go but is miserable if he does. How would you go about building up enjoyment of social occasions in him? There is no kindergarten in the town where he lives.
3. Two babies who live next door to each other always want



Acquiring the social graces painlessly.



It's my turn to use the wagon.

to play with the same toy. Their mothers are discussing the advisability of getting two of each thing they use in their play. How do you think this would work out?

4. The parents in a certain town object to the mixed parties that a girl scout leader has been helping to arrange for her troop. Though the girls are always chaperoned, the parents feel that girls of this age are too young to need such activities. What suggestions have you for the leader? The place is a very small town, with little provision for young people.

Chapter 16

BOOKS AND READING

One of the habits that have much to do with a child's success and happiness is the reading habit. It is obvious that a lack of the reading habit will limit the education he acquires, and that a habit of reading poor material will cramp his capacities. Reading may, in a relatively short period, furnish the child with a supply of knowledge which would otherwise come only as a result of long experience.

If we are to make available to the child the immense resources of books, we must begin from the first to cultivate an appreciation of their possibilities. On questioning parents who complain that their ten- or eleven-year-old children do not read much, it often appears that the parents did not begin early to read to their children or to interest them in pictures and stories.

Besides the knowledge that is acquired through reading, there are other values which very definitely add to a child's equipment. If we aim to strengthen the child's imaginative powers, we should, in addition to helping him discriminate between the real and the fancied, help him to add constantly to his mental life. In no way can we better awaken a child's sympathy than through stories that make an appeal because they have elements of similarity to the experiences with which he is familiar. In no way can we more easily arouse ambition and stimulate him to high endeavor than through stories of achievement.

If reading had no other end in view, the pleasure which the individual gets out of it would be an end in itself. Nothing else combines so many advantages while giving pleasure. The need of quiet relaxation is increasingly felt in the complexity of modern life, and the child

needs recourse to simple recreation to offset the noisy confusion in which he must spend much of his time.

Delight in beauty grows from association with good literature. Joy in the rhythm and swing of alliteration, in words that have sound and color, which seems inborn in children, can be made the basis for real love and appreciation of beauty. The child, for example, who has in his first years had intimate association with the grandeur and poetry of the Bible will always have memories of the Elizabethan language and form that were early imprinted on his mind.

We do not rely enough on humorous literature to help in setting up habits of cheerful adaptation, as well as to furnish amusement. Some of the best of the books for very young children are rich in this sort of material. The sly cleverness, the mockery, and chagrin which Valery Carrick's animals express almost tell the story in the pictures, which may be said of Leslie Brooke's animal pictures as well. The humor of Kipling's *Just So Stories* is not lost on a bright four- or five-year-old; *Alice in Wonderland* will appeal at five or six. Although a well-illustrated edition of *Aesop's Fables* is indispensable, only a few of the fables will be appropriate to the youngest children. Nonsense material, other than Mother Goose rhymes, may be represented by Edward Lear's *Book of Nonsense*. That this book grew up out of the clamorous demands on the part of his friends' children for more pictures and verses each time the painter visited them is an indication of the enjoyment that children get out of this jovial foolishness.

In choosing story materials for children, there are things to avoid, as well as things to seek. Children are easily overstimulated and many stories have to be weeded out on this account. Stories that make children shiver with fear or melt into tears with compassion are in this class. *Red Riding Hood* and *The Babes in the*

Wood are classic examples of this sort, which may safely be used with most children about five or six, but which make the very young child feel too keenly. Fears and night terrors are often traceable to carelessly chosen stories which frighten and puzzle children.

A preponderance of stories of the wishing-ring or Aladdin's lamp variety, in which the hero attains fame or wealth without personal endeavor, is as bad for a child as reliance on a smug hero who conquers insuperable difficulties singlehanded. Either type has the effect of creating in a child vague dreams and desires but offering no outlet in action. Danger lies in developing a habit of avoiding the facts of life. To help our children meet and settle difficulties fairly and squarely is our job, rather than to allow a world of phantasy to grow up around them.

"We cannot ourselves enlarge the mental life of children and give to their emotional and moral life sincerity, nobleness, and sympathy. . . . All that we can do is to provide an environment that shall supply whatever elements are necessary to this growth, in such form that they can appropriate them." To know what elements the child needs for growth we must know something of how he is developing. From infancy the child has enjoyed such sensations as he gets from being rocked or sung to; we may use this delight in rhythm to quiet and soothe him, or to make him laugh and crow, as when we skip or dance with the baby in our arms. Lullabies, finger plays (like *Pat-a-cake*, *Here's a ball for baby*, *This little pig*, etc.) which please the baby, please the child up to the age of three as well. But he should have a far wider range of stories by that time.

Before a child listens much to stories, he enjoys pictures. Simplicity of line and color is important, as is also more or less direct application to the experience of the child. (See Gabriel and Sons, *Railroad Book*, etc.)



Pictures are nice to sing about.



The powers of concentration he is developing will soon be put to use in reading.

Mother Goose books which have an illustration for each rhyme are preferable to those with infrequent illustrations, for the reason that a child will not sit and listen to a story read unless there are pictures to help hold his attention. In the told story, the eyes, expression, and gestures of the teller are a substitute for the pictures. That both reading and telling are necessary is obvious. If the child always had illustrations ready-made for each story, his imagination would not be stimulated as it is by making his own mental pictures.

The first stories which capture a child's attention are those about himself. The child who is dressed to an accompaniment of "here's a leg for a stocking, and here's a leg for a shoe" has less energy for wiggling. (See also *Here and Now Stories*.) Every mother knows the absorbed interest with which children listen to stories of what they did when they were babies, or fanciful narratives in which the hero or heroine bears the child's name. Stories of what mother did when she was a little girl never fail to hold the child's attention. Interest in himself gives place to an interest in other children and in animals. A child's delight in watching a dog or a cat or a squirrel is equaled only by his delight in hearing about one. His interpretation of animals as having the same thoughts and feelings as himself is responsible for the interest he feels in stories in which animals are personified. *Peter Rabbit* and *Jemima Puddleduck* (Beatrix Potter), "The Elephant's Child" (*Just So Stories*), the *Three Pigs* (Leslie Brooke or Randolph Caldecott editions), *Johnny Crow*, illustrate the child's deep interest in what seem to him natural events in the lives of animals.

As a child gains experience his horizon gradually widens. He progresses from an interest in himself, first, to the familiar things and people around him, then to an interest in far-off lands and people. The "Story of

Mowgli" (*Jungle Book*), of *Little Black Sambo*, of *The Dutch Twins*, all add to his knowledge and at the same time form a basis for imaginative play. Another way in which his horizon may be enlarged is through stories of the phenomena of nature—the rain, snow, and thunder; the seasons, the stars, and the moon. His ignorance and wonder influence the way he looks on these things. His attitude is that of the savage—the explanations he wants are those that satisfied early man. Simple versions of early myths and legends are his first requirement before he cares to know scientific explanations. Flora J. Cooke's *Nature Myths and Stories* is a simple presentation; much good mythical material may be found in first and second grade readers.

Love of dramatic representation will be satisfied if a child has others of his own age to act things out with him. Nursery rhymes, as "Miss Muffet and the Spider," "Jack and Jill," "Little Boy Blue," are great favorites for representation. If there are other children who share this interest, all the stories the child knows may become a very real part of his life. He has less interest in listening to nursery rhymes on the phonograph than in *being* the persons or animals of those rhymes.

At two or three a child likes to tell the story for himself. Small books which he can carry about with him, where a picture helps on every page to carry on the story, are needed now. He has taken great delight in the repetitive story, because he could reconstruct for himself much of what was to come, as the story became familiar. He is still attached to old favorites—the fact that he clamors for the same story for months at a time should lead the wary parent to a careful selection of good stories that will not bore the adult in the telling—but changing, growing interests make it possible to add new materials from time to time.

The seasons and holidays make possible an infinite

variety of material that adds to a child's knowledge. The more varied the experiences he accumulates, the more he has to draw on for stories that he makes up himself. He will sing and talk to himself, of course, whether we encourage it or not. But we can greatly increase his power of expression by giving him much material to draw from and by being appreciative of, and responsive to, his efforts at self-expression. Many poetic outbursts of the child are laughed at by his family, and ridicule soon makes the child lose any desire to expose his fancies to such rude demolition. The strange words, tunes, or stories that a child concocts have a special meaning to him which should be respected.

From his fourth or fifth year — varying with his intelligence and the time that has been spent with him — the child will listen to longer and longer stories. Parents sometimes hesitate as to how to handle a child who is eager to absorb more and more through this channel. "But he can't understand all we read to him! What good does it do?" Even if all he hears is not quite plain to him, he is acquiring impressions and images; he is learning how to pronounce words that he might never get right if he waited to become acquainted with them by silent reading. Even if he does not understand the meaning of many of the words, they are being stored up for recognition later. The effort involved in trying to comprehend adds to his enjoyment and his thinking ability at the same time.

As soon as a child learns to read, he should be encouraged to read to himself for amusement. If he depends too much on having stories read to him, he is not likely to form habits of seeking out for himself what he wants to know, but may easily slip into habits of indolence. The child who associates reading only with his school work runs the risk of thinking of it as something

imposed, not something entered on spontaneously and joyously for its own sake.

On the other hand, reading aloud should not be dropped when a child acquires reading proficiency. Much that he might not discover and apply in his reading is interpreted by the parent who reads aloud, making it twice as enjoyable and profitable. Lasting companionship in families is often partly dependent on the reading that was done in common in early years.

The unusually bright child shows his ability early, in respect to reading. By the age of nine or ten, when the average child is beginning to read full-length books, the exceptional child is reading as much as the usual fourteen-year-old. Many such children learn to read before they go to school, and are already reading for pleasure as much as an hour a day by the time they are seven. They will continue to spend more time in reading as a pastime than other children.

The child who is slow about learning to read may be the victim of any one of a number of difficulties. His eyesight and hearing should be tested as a matter of course. It may be that he has not caught the trick of moving his eyes from left to right, or that another comparatively minor detail is what is holding up his progress. Great care should be taken to see that he does not come to have a distaste for trying to learn, as he is very likely to do after failures have made him conspicuous in his class. Sometimes more practice and individual attention are all that is needed, and the mother can by supplying easy and attractive reading material and going over it with the child bolster up his confidence in his ability. If a child is slow because he is dull, which will be the reason in a great number of cases, attainments along other lines must be stressed to offset his almost certain feeling of inferiority about so important a school subject as reading.

Often a child is stimulated to further reading and study along a desirable line by the parents' enthusiasm. Without the sympathy of his mother, the naturalist Agassiz could hardly have kept fifty live birds in his room, as he did in his teens, when he was also toiling away at copying whole volumes which he could not otherwise possess.

Many parents do not stop to think that the time to buy an encyclopedia is not when children are ready for high school but while they are still so young that, by the time they are of high school age, looking up references will long have been a pleasant occupation. There are several good children's encyclopedias on the market that are valuable from the time a child is three or four on up through his teen age years. Thorndike's dictionary for children is a device by which children may be led to think of becoming acquainted with words as fun, instead of the bore that they often consider it.

The interests of boys and girls begin to diverge by the age of nine. Girls continue to like imaginative stories, boys begin to show an increasing curiosity for facts and mechanical knowledge. From this time on, the divergence is more and more marked. Girls enjoy sentiment, poetry, while boys will admit romance only if it is incidental to action, difficulties, excitement. Boys read much more nonfiction than girls; their interest in informational material, in science, becomes marked early. Girls are immersed in books of home and school life, while boys are acquiring a variety of scientific information. Girls read more than boys do at this time, and unless they are stimulated to do otherwise, settle down in their teens—the great reading years—to a one-sided diet of romantic novels.

Several selected lists of reading for children have recently appeared. Those published by the Child Study Association, the American Library Association, and

those in Terman and Lima's *Children's Reading* will furnish many suggestions in addition to the following:

MOTHER GOOSE AND A B C BOOKS

- The Real Mother Goose.* Rand.
 BENET, W. R., *Mother Goose.* Ill. by Duvoisin. Heritage.
 BRUNHOFF, J. DE, *A B C of Babar.* Random.
 FALLS, C. B., *A B C Book.* Doubleday.
 FIELD, R., *An Alphabet for Boys and Girls.* Doubleday.
 FRANCOISE, *The Gay A B C. The Gay Mother Goose.* Scribner.
 HADER, B. and E., *Mother Goose Picture Book.* Coward.
 SEWELL, H., *A B C for Everyday.* Macmillan.
 ———— *Tall Mother Goose.* Ill. by Rojanovsky. Harper.
 TEDDER, E., *The Alphabet and Number Book.* Grosset.

STORIES FOR MOTHER TO LEARN AND TELL

- BRYANT, S. C., *Stories to Tell to the Littlest Ones.* Houghton.
 JACOBS, F., *Finger Plays and Action Rhymes.* Lothrop.
 MITCHELL, L. S., *Here and Now Story Book.* Dutton.
 POULSSON, E., *Finger Plays.* Lothrop.

PICTURE BOOKS THAT TELL A STORY

- ADSHEAD, G. L., *Brownies Hush.* Oxford.
 ARDIZZONE, E., *Little Tim and the Brave Sea Captain.* Oxford.
 BANNERMAN, H., *Little Black Sambo.* Stokes.
 BEMELMANS, L., *Hansi. Madeline.* Viking.
 BESKOW, E., *Pelle's New Suit.* Platt.
 BIANCO, M., *The Velveteen Rabbit.* Doubleday.
 BROCK, E., *Little Fat Gretchen. The Greedy Goat.* Knopf.
 BROOKE, L., *Johnny Crow's Garden.* Warne.
 ———— *The Golden Goose Book.* Warne.
 ———— *The Three Pigs and Tom Thumb.* Warne.
 BROWN, M. W., *Baby Animals. The Noisy Book. Bumble Bugs and Elephants.* Wm. R. Scott.
 BRUNHOFF, J. DE, *The Story of Babar.* Random House.
 BURTON, V. L., *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel.* Houghton.
 CALDECOTT, R., *Picture Books, 1 to 16.* Warne.
 CRANE, W., *Mother Hubbard Picture Book, and others.* Dodd.
 DAUGHTERTY, G., *Andy and the Lion.* Viking.
 DU PLAIX, G., *Topsy Turvy Circus.* Harper.
 DONALD, L., *Karl's Wooden Horse.* Whitman.
 DUVOISIN, R., *Donkey-donkey. All aboard.* Grosset.
 FIELD, R., *Little Dog Toby.* Macmillan.
 FLACK, M., *Angus and the Ducks, Topsy, etc.* Doubleday.
 ———— *Ask Mr. Bear.* Macmillan.
 FRANCOISE, *The Story of Colette.* Scribner.
 GAG, W., *Millions of Cats.* Coward.
 GAY, R., *The Funny Noise.* Collins.
 GRAMATKY, H., *Loopy. Little Toot.* Putnam.

- HADER, B. and E., *The Story of Pancho. Cock-A-Doodle-Do.* Macmillan.
 KALAB, T., *Watching for Winkie.* Longmans.
 LEAF, M., *Ferdinand.* Viking Press.
 LENSKI, L., *The Little Family. The Little Auto.* Oxford.
 LINDBERG, MAJOR, *Karl's Journey to the Moon.* Harper.
 LINDMAN, M. J., *Snipp, Snapp, Snurr and the Red Slippers.* Whitman.
 LOFTING, H., *The Story of Mrs. Tubbs.* Stokes.
 MERCEREAU, A., *The Story of Li-Lo.* Harper.
 MILNE, A. A., *Winnie-the-Pooh. The House at Pooh Corner.* Dutton.
 NEWBERRY, C. T., *Cousin Toby. Herbert the Lion.* Harper.
 PETERSHAM, M. and M., *The Christ Child.* Doubleday.
 ——— *The Story Book of Coal.* (Also iron, gold, etc.) Winston.
 POTTER, B., *Peter Rabbit, Benjamin Bunny, and others.* Warne.
 PROKOFIEF, S., *Peter and the Wolf.* Knopf.
 REY, H. A., *Cecily and the Nine Monkeys.* Houghton.
 ROBERTS, J., *The Wonderful Adventures of Ludo, the Little Green Duck.* Duffield.
 SAMIVEL, *Rufus the Fox.* Harper.
 SLOBODKINA, E., *Caps for Sale.* Wm. R. Scott.
 STONG, PHIL, *Honk the Moose.* Dodd.
 TOWSLEY, L., *Peggy and Peter.* Farrar.
 TUDOR, T., *Pumpkin Moonshine.* Oxford.
 WALKER, M., *The Little Red Chair.* Macmillan.
 WELLS, RHEA, *Peppi the Duck.* Doubleday.
 WILLIAMSON, H., *Stripey.* Doubleday.

SONG AND GAME BOOKS

- BAKER, C. B., and KOHLSAAT, C., *Songs for the Little Child.* Abingdon Press.
 BROWN and BOYD, editors, *American and English Games.* Saul Bros.
 COLEMAN, S. N., and THORN, A. G., *Singing Time. The Little Singing Time.* Day.
 COLEMAN, S. N., and BREGMAN, A., *Songs of American Folks.* Day.
 CRANE, W., *The Baby's Opera.* Warne.
 DANN, H., *First Year Music.* American Book.
 GIDDINGS, T. P., and others, *Songs of Childhood.* Ginn.
 HOFER, M. F., *Children's Singing Games.* Flanagan.
 ——— *Music for the Child World, Vols. I, II.* Summy.
 LYONS, G. H., *Stories of Our American Patriotic Songs.* Vanguard.
 MCCARTENEY, L. P., *Songs for the Nursery School.* Willis.
 MILNE, A. A., *When We Were Very Young.* Dutton.
 MALVERN, C., *Nursery Songs.* Simon and Schuster.
 MOFFAT, A., *Little Songs of Long Ago. Our Old Nursery Rhymes.* McKay.
 NEIDLINGER, W. H., *Small Songs for Small Singers.* Schirmer.
 POULSSON, E., *Finger Plays.* Lothrop.
 POULSSON, E., and SMITH, E., *Songs of a Little Child's Day.* Milton Bradley
 SANDBURG, C., *The American Song Bag.* Harcourt.
 SHARP, C., *Children's Singing Games.* Novello.
 SIEBOLD, M., *Happy Songs for Happy Children.* Schirmer.
 UNTERMAYER, L., *The Last Pirate* (Gilbert and Sullivan Operas). Harcourt.
 UNTERMAYER, L., MANNES, C., and MANNES, D., *New Songs for New Voices.* Harcourt.

BOOKS TO BE READ ALOUD — FIVE TO TWELVE YEARS

Association for Childhood Education, *Told under the Magic Umbrella*. Macmillan.

BARKSDALE, L., *The First Thanksgiving*. Knopf.

Bible for Children. Ill. by Sewall. Oxford.

BROOKS, W. R., *The Story of Reginald*. Knopf.

BROWNE, F., *Granny's Wonderful Chair*. Dutton.

BURROUGHS, JOHN, *Squirrels and Other Fur-Bearers*. Houghton.

CARROLL, L., *Alice in Wonderland*. Appleton, Harper, McKay.

——— *Through the Looking Glass*. Macrae, Macmillan.

CASSELEY, A., *The Whins on Knockattan*. Harper.

COLLODI, C., *Pinocchio*. Macmillan.

COLUM, P., *The Boy Who Knew What the Birds Said*. Macmillan.

CROCKETT, L. H., *Lucio and His Nuong*. Holt.

DE LA MARE, W., *The Three Mulla Mulgars*. Knopf.

DEUTSCH, B., *Heroes of the Kalevala*. Messner.

DICKENS, C., *The Magic Fishbone*. Warne.

DUBOIS, W. P., *The Great Geppy*. Viking.

FABRE, J. H., *Animal Life in Field and Garden. Our Humble Helpers*. Century.

GATES, J., *The Story of Live Dolls*. Bobbs.

GRAHAME, K., *The Wind in the Willows*. Scribner.

HUGHES, R., *Don't Blame Me!* Harper.

KELLOGG, V. L., *Insect Stories*. Appleton.

KIPLING, R., *Jungle Books*. Doubleday.

——— *How the Leopard Got His Spots*. Ill. by Rojanovsky. Garden City.

LAGERLÖF, S., *Wonderful Adventures of Nils*. Doubleday.

LEAR, E., *The Complete Nonsense Book*. Nelson.

LOFTING, H., *Story of Dr. Doolittle*. Stokes.

MILLER, O. T., *First Book of Birds*. Houghton.

O'HARA, M., *My Friend Flicka*. Lippincott.

PAINE, A. B., *The Hollow Tree and Deep Woods Book*. Harper.

PERKINS, L. F., *The Dutch Twins*. Houghton.

PYLE, K., *Mother's Nursery Tales*. Dutton.

RICHARDS, L. E., *Five Minute Stories*. Page.

SANDBURG, C., *Rootabaga Stories*. Harcourt.

SÉGUR, SOPHIE, COMTESSE DE, *The Memoirs of a Donkey*. Macmillan.

SETON, E. T., *Wild Animals I Have Known*. Scribner.

SPYRI, J., *Heidi*. Dutton.

STREATFIELD, N., *Circus Shoes*. Random House.

TEE-VAN, H. D., *The Red Howling Monkey*. Macmillan.

TRAVERS, P. L., *Mary Poppins*. Reynal.

VIMAR, A., *The Curly Haired Hen*. Fitzgerald.

WHITE, E. O., *A Little Girl of Long Ago*. Houghton.

WILDE, O., *Fairy Tales*. Putnam.

WINTER, M., *The Children's Aesop*. Rand.

EASY BOOKS FOR BEGINNING READERS

ANDERSON, C. W., *Billy and Blaze. Blaze and the Gypsies*. Macmillan.

AYER, J. V., *Everyday Stories*. Macmillan.

BARUCH, D., *I Know a Surprise*. Lothrop.

- BERRY, E., *Penny Whistle*. Macmillan.
 BROWN, P., *Puff Ball*. Scribner.
 BRYANT, S. C., *Gordon and His Friends*. Houghton.
 CARRICK, V., *Tales of Wise and Foolish Animals*. Stokes.
 DALGLIESH, A., *The Little Wooden Farmer*. Macmillan.
 DARBY, F. M., *Jack and Susan Stories*. Macmillan.
 FRISKEY, M., *Today We Fly*. Whitman.
 GATES, J., *The Story of Live Dolls*. Bobbs.
 HEWARD, C., *The Twins and Tabiffa*. Jacobs.
 HILL, M. B., *Down-Along Apple Market Street*. Stokes.
 PAULL, G., *Cement Work*. Viking.
 READ, H. S., *Grandfather's Farm. Jip the Fireman. A Story about Boats. An Engine Story*. Scribner.
 SEWELL, H., *Blue Barns*. Macmillan.
 SMITH, M. E. E., *Eskimo Stories*. Rand.
 TIPPETT, J. S., *The Singing Farmer*. World Book.
 WIESE, K., *Liang and Lo*. Doubleday.
 ZIRBES, L., and KELIHER, A. V., *The Book of Pets*. Meadville, Pennsylvania: Keystone View.

ALMOST-TRUE STORIES

- ANGELI, M. DE, *Skippack School*. Doubleday.
 BARNE, K., *She Shall Have Music*. Dodd.
 BENNETT, J., *Master Skylark*. Century.
 BRINK, C. R., *Caddie Woodlawn*. Macmillan.
 CARR, M. J., *Children of the Covered Wagon*. Crowell.
 CLARK, A. N., *My Mother's House*. Viking.
 DAVIS, R., *Hudson Bay Express*. Holiday.
 DEJONG, M., *Dirk's Dog, Bello*. Harper.
 DICKENS, C., *Oliver Twist. David Copperfield*. Dutton.
 EDMUNDS, W. D., *The Matchlock Gun*. Dodd.
 ENRIGHT, E., *The Saturdays*. Farrar.
 EWING, J. H., *Six to Sixteen*. Harcourt.
 EYRE, K. W., *Lottie's Valentine*. Oxford.
 GATES, D., *Blue Willow*. Viking.
 GATTI, A., *Saranga, the Pygmy*. Scribner.
 HARPER, T. A. and W., *Windy Island*. Doubleday.
 HARRIS, L. and K., *Lost Hole of Bingoola*. Bobbs.
 HEMING, A., *The Living Forest*. Doubleday.
 JEWETT, S. O., *Betty Leicester*. Houghton.
 JUSTUS, M., *Dixie Decides*. Random.
 LEDERER, J., *Fafan in China*. Holiday.
 McMEEKIN, I. M., *Journey Cake*. Messner.
 McNEELY, M. H., *The Jumping-off Place*. Longmans.
 MEADER, S. W., *Boy with a Pack*. Harcourt.
 MUKERJI, D. G., *Hari, the Jungle Lad*. Dutton.
 NESBIT, E., *The Bastable Children*. Coward.
 PAGE, T. N., *Two Little Confederates*. Scribner.
 RANSOME, A., *Swallows and Amazons. Winter Holiday*. Lippincott.
 RAWLINGS, M. K., *The Yearling*. Scribner.
 SAWYER, R., *Roller Skates*. Viking.
 SHERWOOD, M. M., *The Fairchild Family*. Stokes.
 SHUTE, H. A., *The Real Diary of a Real Boy*. Reilly.

- SINGER, C., and BALDRIDGE, C. L., *Boomba Lives in Africa*. Holiday.
 SNEDEKER, C. D., *Downright Dencey*. Doubleday.
 STEEN, E. K., *Red Jungle Boy*. Harcourt.
 STREATFIELD, N., *The Stranger in Primrose Lane*. Random.
 STUART, F. P., *Piang, the Moro Chieftain*. Messner.
 WALLACE, D., *Ungava Bob*. Revell.
 WALPOLE, H., *Jeremy*. Doubleday.
 WIGGIN, K. D., *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm*. Houghton.
 WILDER, L. I., *The Long Winter*. Harper.
 ZWILGMAYER, D., *What Happened to Inger Johanne*. Lothrop.

ONCE UPON A TIME

- ASBJORNSEN, P. C., *East o' the Sun and West o' the Moon*. Whitman.
 BABBITT, E., *Jataka Tales*. Century.
 BROWN, M. W., *The Fables of La Fontaine*. Harper.
 COLLINS, H., *Two Viking Boys*. Dodd.
 DE HUFF, E. W., *Taytay's Tales. Five Little Katchinas*. Harcourt.
 HARRIS, J. C., *Uncle Remus: His Songs and Sayings*. Appleton.
 HAWTHORNE, N., *The Wonder Book. Tanglewood Tales*. Houghton.
 INGALLS, J., *Book of Legends*. Harcourt.
 PYLE, H., *Story of King Arthur and His Knights*. Scribner.
 SCUDDER, H. E., *Book of Fables and Folk Stories*. Houghton.
 WIGGIN, K. D., and SMITH, N. A., *Talking Beasts*. Doubleday.

LONG, LONG AGO

- BOYLE, M. E., *Man Before History*. Harrap.
 DOPP, KATHERINE, *The Tree Dwellers*. Rand.
 EWALD, CARL, *Two Legs*. Stokes.
 HALL, J., *Buried Cities*. Macmillan.
 KUMMER, F., *First Days of Man*. Doubleday.
 LAMPREY, L., *Children of Ancient Britain. Long Ago in Gaul*. Little.
 PEATTIE, D. C., *The Story of the First Men*. Grosset.
 QUINNELL, M. J. and C. H. P., *Everyday Life in the Old Stone Age*. Putnam.
 VAN LOON, H., *Story of Mankind. Ancient Man*. Boni.
 WELLS, M. E., *How the Present Came from the Past*. Macmillan.
 WHITNALL, H. O., *Hunter of the Caverns*. Crowell.

OTHER TIMES AND PLACES

- BOYD, J., *Marching On*. Scribner.
 BROOKS, N., *Marco Polo. The Boy Settlers*. Century.
 COFFMAN, R., *Our America*. Dodd.
 DICKENS, C., *A Tale of Two Cities*. Dutton.
 FOSTER, G., *George Washington's World*. Scribner.
 GABRIEL, R. H., editor, *The Pageant of America: A Pictorial History of the United States*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
 HARTMAN, G., *These United States and How They Came to Be*. Macmillan.
 HILLYER, D., *Child's History of the World. Child's Geography of the World*. Century.
 HODGES, C. W., *Columbus Sails*. Coward.
 MARSHALL, R. VAN D. Z., *None But the Brave*. Houghton.
 MORRISON, L., *The Lost Queen of Egypt*. Stokes.
 O'NEILL, E., *A Nursery History of England*. Nelson.

- PUMPHREY, M. B., *Stories of the Pilgrims*. Rand.
 PYLE, H., *Men of Iron*. Harper.
 READE, C., *The Cloister and the Hearth*. Dutton.
 SEREDY, K., *The Singing Tree*. Viking.
 SINGMASTER, E., *A Boy of Gettysburg. Emmeline*. Houghton.
 SMITH, M. P. W., *The Boy Captive of Old Deerfield. The Young Puritans of Old Hadley*. Little.
 SNEDDEN, G. S., *Leif and Thorkel*. World Book.
 TAPPAN, E. M., *In the Days of Alfred the Great. In the Days of Queen Elizabeth*. Lothrop.
 VAN LOON, H., *History with a Match*. McKay.

THE WORLD WE LIVE IN

- BRETZ, R., *How the Earth Is Changing*. Follett.
 DE KRUIF, P., *Microbe Hunters. Men Against Death*. Harcourt.
 DITMARS, R. L., *The Book of Prehistoric Animals. The Book of Zoography*. Lippincott.
 DISRAELI, R., *Seeing the Unseen*. Day.
 DUNHAM, M. P., *What's in the Sky*. Oxford.
 EBERLE, I., *Spice on the Wind*. Holiday.
 FABRE, J. H., *Our Humble Helpers*. Century.
 FRAZIER, G. W., and DOLMAN, H., *Sunshine and Rain*. Singer.
 HARTMAN, G., *The World We Live In*. Macmillan.
 HEGNER, R. and J., *Parade of the Animal Kingdom*. Macmillan.
 ILIN, M., *Black on White. How Man Came to be a Giant. What Time Is It?* Lippincott.
 LUCAS, J. M., *The Earth Changes*. Lippincott.
 MCKENNY, M., and JOHNSTON, E. F., *A Book of Wildflowers*. Macmillan.
 PARKER, B. M., *Beyond the Solar System*. Harper.
 REED, W. M., *The Earth for Sam. The Sky Is Blue*. Harcourt.
 THOMPSON, J. A., *Outline of Science*. Putnam.
 WASHBURN, C. W. and H. C., *The Story of the Earth*. Century.

WINGS, SCALES, AND CLAWS

- BRONSON, W. S., *Fingerfins: the Tale of a Sargasso Fish*. Macmillan.
 CHAPMAN, W. and L., *Beaver Pioneers*. Scribner.
 DITMARS, R. L., *Book of Insect Oddities*. Lippincott.
 FAZZINI, L. D., *Bugs of America*. Whitman.
 FENTON, C. F., *Along the Hill*. Day.
 FISH, H. D., *Animals of American History*. Stokes.
 GREY OWL, *Sajo and the Beaver People*. Scribner.
 GRODIN, A. J., *All the Year Round*. Knopf.
 HUNTINGTON, H. E., *Let's Go Outdoors*. Doubleday.
 HYER, H. VON K., *Stories by Seasons*. Marshall Jones.
 KANE, H. B., *Alphabet of Birds, Bugs, and Beasts*. Houghton.
 KENLY, J. C., *Voices from the Grass*. Appleton.
 KING, E., and PESSELS, W., *Insect People*. Harper.
 KING, J., *Peter and the Frog's Eye*. Grosset.
 MANNIX, D. P., *Back-yard Zoo. More Back-yard Zoo*. Coward.
 MORSE, G. F., *Creepers and Sliders*. Follett.
 PARKER, B. M., *Seeds and Seed Travels*. Harper.
 PATCH, E. M., *Holiday Pond. Holiday Meadow*. Macmillan.

ROBERTS, T. S., *Bird Portraits in Color*. University of Minnesota Press.

SMALLEY, J., *Do You Know? Tomorrow*.

THORNE, F., *The Microscopic World*. Messner.

WAUGH, DOROTHY, *Among the Leaves and Grass*. Holt.

EXPLORATION AND ADVENTURE

ANDREWS, R. C., *The Ends of the Earth*. Putnam.

AVERILL, E., *The Voyages of Jacques Cartier*. Domino.

CLEMENS, S., *Life on the Mississippi*. Harper.

DANA, R. H., *Two Years Before the Mast*. Houghton.

DITMARS, R. L., *Thrills of a Naturalist's Quest*. Macmillan.

DU CHAILLU, P., *Gorilla Country. Land of the Long Night*. Harper.

FABRICIUS, J. W., *Java Ho!* Coward.

FREUCHEN, PETER, *Eskimo*. Liveright.

GRENFELL, W. T., *Adrift on an Ice Pan*. Houghton.

JAKES, F. P. and F. L., *Canoe Country. The Geese Fly High*. University of Minnesota Press.

LINDBERGH, A. M., *North to the Orient*. Harcourt.

MACCREAGH, G., *White Waters and Black*. Century.

NORDHOFF, C., *The Pearl Lagoon*. Little.

PARKMAN, F., *The Oregon Trail*. Little.

ROGERS, C., *Drake's Quest*. Doubleday.

SEVAREID, A., *Canoeing with the Cree*. Macmillan.

SHACKLETON, E., *South*. Macmillan.

WALLACE, D., *The Lure of the Labrador Wild*. Reeves.

YOUNGHUSBAND, F., *The Wonders of the Himalaya*. Dutton.

STORIES OF THE SEA

BULLEN, F. T., *The Cruise of the Cachalot*. Appleton.

DANA, R. H., *Two Years Before the Mast*. Houghton.

DUNCAN, N., *The Adventure of Billy Topsail*. Revell.

FINGER, C. J., *Heroes from Hakluyt*. Holt.

HAWES, C. B., *The Dark Frigate*. Little.

HEWES, A. D., *Spice and the Devil's Cave*. Knopf.

HOPKINS, W. J., *She Blows! and Sparm at That!* Houghton.

KIPLING, R., *Captains Courageous*. Doubleday.

MARRYAT, F., *Masterman Ready*. Macrae.

MASEFIELD, J., *Jim Davis*. Stokes.

MEIGS, C., *Clearing Weather*. Little.

MELVILLE, H., *Moby Dick*. Omoo. Dodd.

NORDHOFF, C., and HALL, J. N., *Mutiny on the "Bounty." Men against the Sea. Pitcairn's Island*. Little.

SLOCUM, J., *Around the World in the Sloop "Spray."* Scribner.

STEVENSON, R. L., *Treasure Island*. Harper, Scribner.

STOCKTON, F. R., *Buccaneers and Pirates of Our Coasts*. Macmillan.

VERNE, JULES, *The Mysterious Island. Twenty Thousand Leagues under the Sea*. Scribner.

VILLIERS, A. J., *By Way of Cape Horn. Falmouth for Orders*. Holt.

BIOGRAPHY AND AUTOBIOGRAPHY

AKSAKOV, S. T., *Years of Childhood*. Dutton.

ALBEE, W., *Kanguk, a Boy of Bering Strait*. Little.

- BABCOCK, B., *Little Abe Lincoln*. Lippincott.
 BISHOP, J. B., editor, *Theodore Roosevelt's Letters to His Children*. Scribner.
 BOUTET DE MONVEL, L. M., *Joan of Arc*. McKay.
 CHENEY, E. D., *Louisa May Alcott, Life, Letters and Journals*. Little.
 CRISS, M., Mary Stuart, *Young Queen of Scots*. Dodd.
 DAUGHERTY, J., *Daniel Boone*. Viking.
 DAY, C., *Life with Father*. Knopf.
 FINGER, C. J., *David Livingstone*. Doubleday.
 FRANKLIN, B., *Autobiography*. Holt.
 FREUCHEN, P., *Arctic Adventure*. Farrar.
 GRENFELL, W., *A Labrador Doctor*. Houghton.
 HAGEDORN, H., *Boys' Life of Theodore Roosevelt*. Harper, Houghton.
 HODGES, G., *When the King Came (The Life of Christ)*. Houghton.
 HUDSON, W. H., *Far Away and Long Ago*. Dutton.
 JEWETT, S., *God's Troubadour*. Crowell.
 KELLER, H., *Story of My Life*. Doubleday.
 LAGERLÖF, S., *Marbacka*. Doubleday.
 MORROW, H., *Forever Free*. Morrow.
 MUIR, J., *Story of My Boyhood and Youth*. Houghton.
 NICOLAY, H., *Boys' Life of Abraham Lincoln. Boys' Life of Washington. Century*.
 O'SULLIVAN, M., *Twenty Years A-Growing*. Viking.
 OVERTON, J., *Life of Robert Louis Stevenson for Boys and Girls*. Scribner.
 PAINE, A. B., *Boys' Life of Mark Twain*. Harper.
 PEARY, J., *The Snow Baby*. Stokes.
 PUMPELLY, R., *Travels and Adventures of Raphael Pumpelly*. Holt.
 SANDBURG, C., *Abe Lincoln Grows Up*. Harcourt.
 STEFFENS, L., *Boy on Horseback*. Harcourt.
 STERN, E. G., *My Mother and I*. Macmillan.
 THOMAS, L., *Rolling Stone*. Doubleday.

POETRY

- ALDIS, D., *Everything and Anything*. Putnam.
 ALLEN, M. L., *A Pocketful of Rhymes*. Harper.
 ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, *Sung under the Silver Umbrella*. Macmillan.
 BENET, W. R., *Poems for Youth*. Dutton.
 BLAKE, W., *Songs of Innocence*. Lane.
 DE LA MARE, W., *Come Hither*. Knopf.
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MUSIC FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

FOR QUIET AND REST PERIODS

I Saw Three Ships
Stille Nacht

From *140 Folk Songs*

Cradle Song, *Schumann*
Boat Song, *Reinhold*

From *Music for the Child World*, Vol. I

GAMES AND DRAMATIC SONGS

Here We Come Gathering Nuts in May
Old Roger
Ring a Ring O'Roses (first version)
The Gallant Ship
Looby Loo

From *Children's Singing Games*

A-Hunting We Will Go
Did You Ever See a Lassie
Farmer in the Dell
London Bridge
Muffin Man

From *American and English Games*

MUSIC FOR RHYTHMS AND DANCES

See-Saw, Margery Daw
Faust Grand March, *Gounod*
Soldier's March, *Schumann*
Giants and Elves (heavy and light)
Hand Organ (Irish jig)
Tin Soldiers
Rocking Horse (tip toe)
Hop, Hop, Hop (good translation)
Fife and Drum (Morris dance)

From *First Year Music*

Turkish March
Elephant (heavy, on all fours)
Turkey Strut
Swing Song
See-Saw

From *Music for the Child World*, Vol. II

RECORDS TO LISTEN AND DANCE TO

The Clock, <i>Kullak</i>	}	18853 Victor
To a Humming Bird, <i>MacDowell</i>		
Knight of the Hobby Horse, <i>Schumann</i>	}	35764 Victor
March of the Tin Soldiers, <i>Tschaikowsky</i>		
Merry Wives of Windsor (overture), <i>Nicolai</i>		
Jewels of the Madonna (intermezzo), <i>Nicolai</i>	}	19249 Victor
Pizzicato from "Sylvia" Ballet, <i>Delibes</i>		
Three Dances from Henry VIII	}	7047M Columbia
Morris Dance		
Shepherd's Dance		
Old English Dance, <i>Smith</i>	}	18216 Victor
Moment Musical, <i>Schubert</i>		
Gavotte, <i>Thomas</i>		
Mazurka, <i>Chopin</i>		
Nutcracker Suite, <i>Tschaikowsky</i>		45053 Victor

Here We Go Round the Mulberry Bush	}	17104 Victor
London Bridge		
Round and Round the Village	}	73366 Victor
Parade of the Wooden Soldiers		
Twinkling Stars	}	17084 Victor
Shoemaker's Dance		
Klappdans	}	20153 Victor
Little Hunters		
Spinning Song	}	20153 Victor
Wild Horseman		
Of a Tailor and a Bear	}	A7575 Columbia
Hansel and Gretel		

VOCAL RECORDS TO LISTEN TO

Cradle Songs of Many Nations	}	19038 Victor
The Cuckoo Clock, <i>Grant-Schaeffer</i>		
Old Chanticleer, <i>Terhune</i>	}	17513 Victor
Slumber Song, <i>Grant-Schaeffer</i>		
Froggies' Swimming School, <i>Gaynor</i>	}	17596 Victor
Hey Baloo, <i>Schumann</i>		
Slumber Boat, <i>Gaynor</i>	}	18448 Victor
The Sandman, <i>Grant-Schaeffer</i>		
Sweet Pea Tree, <i>Gaynor</i>	}	886 Victor
Poppy and the Bobolink, <i>Gaynor</i>		
The Cuckoo, <i>Daquin</i>	}	20617 Victor
Fairy Ship, <i>Gaynor</i>		
Grasshopper Green, <i>Gaynor</i>	}	20345 Victor
The Sandman (Hansel and Gretel), <i>Humperdinck</i>		
Barefoot Goslings (Hansel and Gretel), <i>Humperdinck</i>	}	A8154 Columbia

QUESTIONS

1. What are some of the poor results that might come from reading only magazines and no books?
2. What poor behavior in a five-year-old would lead you to decide you had been relying too much on imaginative rather than on realistic materials in reading to him?
3. Why do radio programs in story form appeal to some children more than the same stories in books?
4. Several parents and children in a small rural school criticized the readers used in the fourth and fifth grades as being very "silly" because much of their content was imaginative material. Show why such readers—whose stories include well-presented folklore, myths, and legends—are suitable. Why do you think the children thought the material was silly?

5. Mrs. B. refuses to get Eugene, aged four, any really good books yet because, she says, he will treat them roughly. He has several cheap, gaudy picture books to which he is devoted, and which he has carried around until they are falling apart. At what age may a child begin to learn to respect and care for nice things?
6. Should Lloyd, ten years old, be encouraged to read less or be let alone? He gets on well with school and playmates but sometimes leaves very jolly play to go in and read. He often begs to be allowed to stay at home and read when the family is going automobiling, visiting, etc.
7. Do you enjoy reading a famous book more before or after you see it pictured on the screen? Why?

Chapter 17

THE FAMILY

In the foregoing chapters we have seen that the family represents the world of a child. No family is an ideal world for its particular child any more than the world outside the family is ideal for adults. Thoughtful parents are sometimes depressed by their past deficiencies and failures, particularly because so much emphasis is placed on the importance of the early years of childhood. Even though this period is stressed, parents may find comfort in the fact that the principles which apply to the training and guidance of these first years are applicable also to later childhood and youth, and that at any stage of development behavior may be modified. Parents who are eager to know and to put into practice what they learn are meeting their problems intelligently. The ability of a parent should be judged not only by the amount of his knowledge at any one time but also by his readiness to modify his own behavior.

All the phases of a child's life are interdependent. We cannot develop a well-balanced personality unless, in addition to a good physical regime, the child is given healthy mental and emotional surroundings as well. All the instinctive drives must be taken into account—play, imagination, curiosity, love of doing and of competing. There must be developed in him a sense of his relative importance; sorrow often results from the inability of a child whose home revolves around him to fit into the larger scheme of things, where he is only a tiny cog.

To provide the right spiritual and mental environment calls for parents who have imagination and insight. It demands a father who is not so preoccupied with providing food for his children that he neglects

their hunger for companionship. It presupposes a mother who is not merely a bundle of unselfish devotion and sacrifice, but who is farsighted enough not to confuse the immediate satisfaction of the child's desires with his ultimate happiness.

The training of children is a joint responsibility of both parents. Cooperation in the home and family has perhaps more to do with mental health than any other single factor.

In discussing the family as an educative background for the care and training of children we must readjust our thinking about the function of the family in modern life. As John Dewey says, "It is impossible to exaggerate the amount of mental and moral training secured by our forefathers in the course of the ordinary pursuits of life. . . . Children had the discipline that comes from sharing in useful activities." Owing to changes in conditions, such as the shift of population to the cities and the resulting modification of family life, children have lost the benefits "that once came from sharing in the round of home duties." When the term *education* is used we ordinarily think of the school and do not look upon the family as an educational institution. In fact, so rapid has been the change by which the schools have taken over the attempt to pass on to children the accumulated lore necessary to their welfare that we forget that there are educative possibilities in the modern home.

Granting the extent to which the responsibility for some types of training has been shifted to the schools, the home still offers the earliest, and in many respects the most thorough, education which a child receives. In preceding chapters we have constantly stressed the great susceptibility of the child to impressions in these early years and the rapid gain made in the development of habits and skills, whether they be informational,

motor, emotional, or social. We have seen that the personality of the child is emerging among all the influences of early environment and is being shaped by them, and that the family represents the world of the child in which, long before he reaches school age, he has been meeting situations and developing ways of reacting to them. Because he is more frequently and more profoundly moved or stimulated by persons than by the inanimate part of his environment, the home, with its close association with a number of personalities, becomes the field in which the child tests out and comes to appreciate the value of certain types of behavior. If a child, for example, hears one parent almost always say "No" to his requests he will sooner or later avoid making requests when that parent is present; or, if he is constantly in the company of children less assertive than himself, he will have many opportunities of testing out his ability to initiate and carry through projects.

The family, then, constitutes the miniature world in which the child gains much practice and experience. Little as we know about family life, especially those features which produce satisfactory results, some suggestions can be made from the point of view of experienced workers in difficult family situations.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE FAMILY

1. The first duty of the family toward its children, after the satisfaction of physical wants, is to give them the background of love and security that all human beings crave. Perhaps this seems too obvious to need mention. Offhand, one would be inclined to retort to such a statement, "Why, that goes without saying!" That this is not the case is shown by the many personality difficulties that betray the unrest and conflict present in children whose parents, for one reason or another, have not met this fundamental need.

It may be that parents have failed a child in this respect because his coming proved an obstacle to the satisfaction of their own desires and pleasures. A child may be unwanted because he represents another mouth to feed, and thus causes in his parents anxieties so profoundly disturbing that no matter how much they may love him, they continually worry about his welfare. Still another possibility is that a child may be in the distressing position of being the chain that binds together two persons whose differences have proved almost beyond endurance. In yet another instance, the child whose parents have been divorced finds himself in an anomalous position that confuses and distresses him. If these seem extreme cases we have only to think of other ways in which a child may feel that the foundations of his life are insecure. Among these is economic stress, which, while it bulks large, is on the whole far less disastrous in its effect on a child's peace of mind than pressures caused by immaterial, intangible elements. Thus it may be that a child's position among his brothers and sisters, or the peculiarities of his own temperament, predispose him to feel that he is unimportant.

What a child wants most of all is to feel that he occupies a place in the family that no one else could fill; that he has the all-enveloping love and affection and understanding of his parents to fall back upon whenever he needs them.

Closely bound up with a child's need of filling a special niche in his parents' affections is his need of establishing himself as important enough to warrant this love and esteem; that is, he must show what he is made of, must accomplish things that give him a sense of achievement. A four-year-old is proud of his ability to dress himself. An eight-year-old is tremendously set up by the Christmas gift that he makes for his mother, without

any help. A twelve-year-old may excel in some sport, at cake-baking, or raising vegetables—what he does is unimportant, if only it is something into which he has put effort, and for which he deserves recognition.

2. A child's family has responsibilities toward him both as a member of society and as an individual. If the child does not learn cooperation, fair play, and respect for the right of others in his own home, the family has failed at an important point. The earlier that discipline to principles of law and order is learned, the less brutal and callous will seem the discipline that society imposes. When Mrs. Woolley studied children who fail to adjust to school life, she found that an outstanding difficulty lay in the mental distraction caused by neglect, poverty, quarreling, and immorality in the home. William Healy and Cyril Burt, both of whom have studied many hundreds of children, have pointed out in what a large proportion of cases defective discipline at home is associated with delinquency.

In Hartshorne and May's contribution to a study of the ways in which character may be influenced, it has been pointed out that a knowledge of good conduct or behavior does not necessarily result in good practices. But "parental discord and parental indulgence in questionable practices are closely related to delinquency in children." Taken with this, their statement that "habits and attitudes established before the age of five are believed, though not proved, to remain permanent and serve as the foundations of character" brings out again the importance of the family as the background of this early learning.

3. Again, the family must help the child to have a rational attitude toward the problems of life. It is only by actually facing difficult situations that the child builds up a technique of handling them. A child whose parents, for example, encourage her to dissolve into

tears and seek their help in every difficulty is building up a type of response which will greatly handicap her in the ordinary rough and tumble of life.

Self-reliance cannot be taught too early. From the time a six-months-old baby is left alone in a room to amuse himself to the time when the youth becomes self-supporting, he needs constant, exhilarating practice in being able to do for himself. In this respect particularly the modern small family is bad. In the family of ten or twelve children each has early to stand on his own feet.

4. Early giving of responsibilities is very closely allied with self-reliance. The growing child should never, of course, be subjected to heavy, routine work; drudgery in childhood does not lead to a happy attitude toward work later. But the assignment of small regular duties should begin very early, while the child's interest in helping is keen. If we wish to make an attitude of responsibility habitual, we must give pleasurable practice from an early age.

5. Responsibility is more readily assumed if a child knows what it is all about. Many parents hesitate to take their children into the family councils and discussions because of their feeling that children will not understand or will talk to outsiders about intimate affairs. Children greatly appreciate being taken into the confidence of their parents and will show discretion here in proportion to the soundness of their other training. In no way can a sense of family solidarity and comradeship be better built up than through frank discussion of problems.

Understanding, for example, of the limitations of the family income will have its effect in preventing resentment and misunderstanding in the girl who otherwise would not "see why" she cannot have some of the things her friends have. Discussion of family affairs and ideals will often clarify in the minds of growing children why

"things" are of only relative importance. In one family, where wholesome ideals were not preached about but illustrated, the children grew up with a feeling of pity for children in a wealthy family of their acquaintance, who were so dependent on material things for a good time.

DIFFICULTIES IN CARRYING OUT RESPONSIBILITIES

1. Only those parents who are themselves well adjusted to life can expect to see good adjustments in their children. In Abbott's book *On the Training of Parents* he remarks that "the first habits which the parents have to form in the training of their child are their own." We have seen over and over again in the preceding chapters that the emotional attitudes and habits of the parents are always at work silently coercing the child in this or that direction. The excitable, overwrought woman whose voice is shrill and high-keyed frays the nerves of her children, regardless of their degree of sensitivity. The man who, believing that children should be seen and not heard, makes no effort to understand sympathetically their growing and changing needs from year to year, finds at last a barrier built up between him and his children. But if they fail to love and respect him, he considers them ingrates.

Parents almost without exception want to do the right thing by their children; they crave for them opportunities which they have never been able to grasp. But in so doing, they sometimes take to themselves prerogatives which parenthood does not imply. Because a parent has failed to realize an early ambition, he sets his heart upon its realization by his son, whose tastes and ability may run along other lines entirely, and who may in turn be frustrated in achieving his own dearest wish if the father succeeds in dominating his plans. Bitterness and resentment are the portion of those parents

who see in fatherhood and motherhood a divine right to decide the child's destiny.

Perhaps children are given parents because there is an advantage to the young in having handed on to them the experience of the race. The relatively long period of human infancy, when the child is helpless, as against the short infancy of young animals, is an indication of the greater possibilities of children for learning. They are not sent into the world as animals are, fully equipped for their experiences. In very many cases, however, the parent is too eager to protect and shelter the child, so that he unfits, rather than equips, him for the manifold experiences he must meet. In many cases much of what a child learns in his infancy and childhood hinders him more than it helps. Samuel Butler, in *The Way of All Flesh*, points out that some children would be better off, if, like some insects, they came into the world with no chance of parental training, equipped — as it were — to eat their way out of a bank roll. We have evidence, in the helplessness and timidity of many adults, of the lengths to which parents sometimes go in considering their children as appendages rather than as individuals. The family must, of course, assume responsibility for the protection of the child. At the same time a recognition of the possibility of too much, too far-reaching protection should be faced and guarded against.

2. The changing conditions of modern life have made necessary new adjustments in the family and home. The functions of the home have changed, as the work of the members of the family has taken them more and more away from it. But the craving for a home and for intimate understanding and affection persists, though often unsatisfied.

Material progress, which has done so much for the comfort and convenience of the family, has also been responsible for some changes that are harder to adjust

to than electric lights and running water. But the different type of family life which we condemn or deplore today hangs on the fact that no longer need the members of the family share in making the candles or cleaning the lamps or pumping the water. They must now, perhaps, in many cases, leave home earlier to earn the money to pay for the electricity that furnishes water and light and washing and ironing facilities. In caviling at modern life we are likely to forget that at no time in the history of the race has the man been the sole provider. The family has always been dependent also on the ability of the woman and children to create food out of raw material, clothes out of wool. This is no new thing that the members of the family have undertaken, but the fact that they must now scatter in order to produce the same result brings about many new problems.

We cannot look for a return of the days when the family unit was a large one, when unmarried uncles or aunts swelled the numbers around the fireside and a whole family connection lived within earshot. The breaking up of the big family clan, as work takes people here or there, is responsible for a change in the child's environment of affection. Where, in an earlier period, he was in most cases surrounded by many relatives whose affection and interest were a big part of his life, he now depends on the immediate family group or on friends for sympathy and love. It will readily be seen how easily the child who is rarely thrown with grownups other than his parents may become too much attached to one parent or the other. Again, if his parents lack spontaneity of expression of their love for him, he may early seek affection in friends, or himself become cold and repressed, though inwardly craving affection and sympathy. A child needs intimate and free association with a number of persons very early if he is to develop habits of ready response, of genial behavior in the group.

3. Ideas on the relations between parent and child have changed radically. In place of the belief that a child has a natural love for his parent it has become obvious that the affections are not set in any direction at birth but become attached to those persons who, by solicitous care and devotion, draw out and condition the affective impulses.

In the same way, close association with an infant or child, bread-winning for it and protecting it, leads to an establishment of bonds of affection in the adult which have little to do with the so-called maternal or paternal instincts. The general lack of enthusiasm on the part of fathers for taking a hand in the training of their children is due in no small degree to the fact that they are not so closely associated with the children as the mothers are. The more effort and time expended on the children, the more intimate the sacrifice, the greater the appreciation of the child's needs. To the argument that the father expends just as much energy and makes as many sacrifices in pursuing his business, the suggestion comes that, although he acquires what he does for the benefit of his children, society and opinion, as well as a desire to leave an evidence of his ability, push him into this effort. It is well recognized how poor a father that man makes who allows himself to become centered on the amassing of wealth.

Forbush makes a distinction between the "consulting" and the "practicing" father. The father whose recreation is apart from that of his children cannot expect intimacy and companionship with them. As children become adolescent, parents often worry because much of their time is spent outside the home, and the control of the family grows weaker. Only when the habit of companionship has been established early can we expect to find the family influence exerting much of a pull on the inclinations of the maturing individual, to whom the



Family unity is strengthened by having fun together.

Reproduced by courtesy of William Ward.



*Her daughters-in-law will bless her. Learning domestic skills
is as enjoyable to boys as to girls.*

Reproduced by courtesy of Margaret Bonine Fox.

opinion of his own age group is naturally of vast importance.

The habit of family walks, of excursions and adventures together, helps to develop common interests. A pair of field glasses and Sunday walks to discover the birds as they appear mean as well a pleasant topic of conversation at meals and the possibility of a worthwhile hobby which will absorb leisure time. The father who does not frown a "hands off" when his boys experiment with his tools, but who finds time during the week to encourage the progress of the bus or boat they are engaged on and to help them arrange a workshop where they may learn to keep the tools orderly and in good condition need not lose in authority. Parents sometimes wonder at the respect their boys and girls pay to a teacher or scout leader who has not the sternness that they feel is in keeping with authority.

Condescending to the child's supposed level might lessen the respect due a parent; but meeting a child on his own ground, treating him as a thinking individual instead of one to whom commands must be barked as to an underling or an animal, will increase his interest and loyalty. It is often remarked that we would more readily gain the cooperation of our children if we treated them as courteously as we must treat our adult associates. In one family noted for its loyalty and jollity, the standards of conduct and appearance "for home" were kept high. If one of the children appeared on a Saturday morning in even slightly soiled or carelessly put-on garments, the comment of the mother, after sharp scrutiny, was sure to be, "Is that quite good enough for *home*?"

In a suburban neighborhood the question of a playground was broached when many of the taxpayers felt they were already taxed to their limit. At a community meeting, after the objectors had rehearsed their woe,

one father, who could no better afford to pay his share than the rest, stirred the gathering by inquiring, "Can we afford *not* to have the playground, when we consider what it will mean in keeping our boys off the streets and out of pool-halls?" When it comes to the question of the father being able to "afford" the time to play with his children, much the same answer applies.

4. Difficulties arising from lack of unity or affection in the parents are numerous. Psychiatrists, who see many cases of mental breakdown in adolescents and young adults, believe that much of such maladjustment is directly traceable to the feeling of insecurity that permeated the earliest years. A child's parents should be the stable, secure, unchanging element in the child's early life.

5. Oversolicitous, overanxious parents often find themselves involved in trouble. Two such parents spent a year going from clinic to clinic, seeking a physical basis for the behavior of their child, for it took them that long to conclude that she really was merely "spoiled from overattention," as they had been told.

It is the growing belief of workers in this field today that great care must be taken lest children become too much aware of their own conduct. The danger of training individuals to study and speculate and rationalize about their own behavior is easily seen. Instead of putting much emphasis to the child on the causes and reasons for inefficient or undesirable behavior, there must be specific, constructive training to meet the problems that brought about the behavior.

Parents will recognize the decided inadvisability of discussing a child in his presence.

6. An obstacle to the normal development of a child is often found in the parents' ignorance of or failure to recognize the need for growth of the child's affections. The child's love and affection should progress naturally.

At first, love is wholly for himself and his own interests. There is nothing unnatural in this. But there is always a possibility of the family's contributing to the child's self-love to so great an extent that he may never pass beyond this infantile stage.

The second step in the growth of a child's affections comes when he develops a response to the care and affection his parents have lavished on him. Here too there is a possibility of arrested development. The family may be so jealous of the child's devotion that they never allow him to escape the bounds of a love that includes parents and family only. Instances of whole families of boys and girls remaining unmarried can be laid at the door of mothers who expect, even demand, that their children spend their lives yielding up devotion only to them. There are, of course, other contributing factors in such behavior, but a love which draws the interests of the individual away from the benefits of society is rapacious and greedy.

In the next natural stage in the unfolding of a child's affections his love will go out to associates and friends of his own sex. Hero worship and loyalty to a leader, both playing a part in character development, are characteristic now. This is the age for devoted friendships that help to stimulate the thinking powers and facility in self-expression.

Lastly, of course, the individual reaches the stage of interest in the opposite sex. The man or woman who suffers from arrest at any prior point in the development of the affections is bound to suffer from lack of a normal outlet.

ADVANTAGES OF FAMILY LIFE

In the family, individuals have many opportunities to learn adjustment, which makes the adjustments of life easier for them. Give and take, on familiar terms,

accustom a child to respect the likes and dislikes, opinions and crotchets, of others and lessens the number of hurts and injuries which he would otherwise suffer. The advantages to a child of being brought up in a large family are obvious. The preschool child who has not had to rub shoulders with others, to learn to tussle for rights on one occasion and submit pleasantly on another, will consider the buffets he meets later unfair and overwhelming. Mothers often worry unnecessarily about the teasing that goes on among the children of a family. While such behavior is hard on the mother, it has the effect eventually of forcing the individual to laugh at or ignore it. An only child who, at the age of twelve, was suddenly subjected to the teasing of five boy cousins realized later the valuable training in self-control which resulted, but wished it had come earlier. The individual who is not thrown into similar circumstances until adult life has no pattern of response built up, and suffers while trying out methods of meeting the situation.

But "isn't it tremendously unfair to the younger, defenseless child?" Isn't it a tremendous risk for the mother constantly to step in and act as a shield for that younger child? Isn't there grave risk of his coming to rely on such a procedure? The danger that the child will suffer mistreatment at the hands of the others is no greater than that he will become flabby and spineless from never having to stand up for himself.

There are times when parents must interfere. When one child tends to dominate another, the interests of the less aggressive individual must be protected. In one large family of boys, the youngest, who had the misfortune to be also very gentle and amiable, was left out of all family councils or affairs. Whenever he ventured an opinion, he was hushed with the statement that he was too young to have good judgment. A stronger individual would have rebelled. This boy, by reason of his weak

emotional make-up, went throughout life a slighted, belittled individual. He had a good mind, and early and frequent opportunities to express his ideas would have tended toward the development of a balanced personality. The failure of this boy saddened the whole family, who had unwittingly helped to bring it about.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Parents think they love and treat all their children alike, not realizing that it is impossible to do so. As each child in a family has a different environment, so the parent in that environment is an unknown quantity in every case. A mother may love a child violently and still lack understanding. One woman whose children are already grown has regretted her attitude toward one daughter, with whom, she said, she had always been more or less at swords' points. The mother, very quick and intense by nature, attempted from the outset to prod the slow, deliberate child to behavior like her own. Ambitious, quick to see through a problem herself, she had urged her daughter on, intensifying by every endeavor the antagonism which had its roots in the wide discrepancy in their inherited equipment.

Parents seldom fail to recognize individual differences in their children. They do make mistakes when it comes to lending all the aid possible to the best development of their children's powers, when those abilities differ from their own. As Crichton Miller puts the situation, the parent often conceives of his relationship as that of the potter to the clay, rather than that of the gardener tending the development of a bulb. The potter has in mind the definite outlines of the bowl he is shaping, whereas the gardener cannot alter by one jot or tittle the capacities of the bulb he is growing. He can, however, by providing a sunny place with good soil and plenty of water, watch it unfold and develop all that is in it; or by

neglect or improper care can see it wither and shrivel into a scrawny, ridiculous caricature of the flower it might have become.

The child of mediocre intelligence may, by careful handling of his emotions, become as successful and happy a member of society as the child whose brightness sets him apart. It is frequently true that an individual of brilliant intellect fails because of unstable emotions to make the adjustments necessary for equilibrium. Effort is bent on training his mind; but if his emotions are neglected he will fail to become a useful, happy adult.

Observations in our Nursery School bring out how early children show ability in leadership. The child who from the age of three begins to have success in handling other children will have had an immense amount of practice by the time he is an adult. Not all children can be leaders. But our task as parents is to provide for our children many opportunities for success. The measure of ease and grace with which the individual will meet and surmount obstacles in adult life depends largely on the experience which he acquires as a child. No adult can begin to acquire the efficiency in piano playing, in swimming, or sports which is possible to the person who has had steady, enjoyable practice in these arts from childhood. It is just as true of personal adjustments. By forethought and ingenuity parents can supply opportunities for practice in a wide variety of the experiences that make for an integrated personality.

Children should be accustomed to sharing and taking turns. They should know the exhilaration of sticking to a difficult task and seeing it through. They should early have experience in earning and handling money, in order to learn its value and make wise expenditures. Parents often try to shield their children from sorrows and difficulties, saying, "They will run into these things

soon enough." But a child who has never faced hardship may be bowled over by it. A child who has had no opportunity to sit in on family councils will have little idea of the realities of family life. Undirected reading, for example, often influences a girl to a romantic view of life. If this is widely at variance with the hard facts that she later runs into, she may be dismayed and crushed by events that otherwise might be laughed off as negligible.

Early training in self-control, in building habits of patience and consideration, of wholesome comradeship rather than jealous rivalry, will tend to produce an individual able to see himself as a part of a whole, rather than as a center about which others revolve.

A function of the home which cannot disappear is that of giving direction and balance to the early emotional manifestations of its children. No matter how early a child goes to school, he goes as an individual who has already done an immense amount of learning. That his first learning shall contribute toward making him equal to his opportunities is the task of the parent, who should keep in mind that not all that helps or hinders the individual's adjustment lies in the tangible, material "environment" that we see around him.

QUESTIONS

1. Is the only child necessarily more poorly trained to meet life than the child who has brothers and sisters?
2. Why should both the father and the mother have a hand in the discipline of their children?
3. Should children be allowed to state their own opinions when those ideas conflict with the demands or commands of the parent?
4. A famous preacher once said his most important work had been persuading fathers to spend fifteen minutes a day with their children. Why did he feel this was more important than his other work?

5. Harry is fourteen but not tall for his age. When every other boy in his room came to school this fall in long trousers, Harry felt he must have some, though his parents had not contemplated buying him any new clothes. What suggestion can you make? To what results may refusal on the part of the parents lead?
6. Suggest suitable routine household duties for children of two, four, eight, ten, and fourteen years. Specify time to be spent daily in each case. Suggest a means in connection with each of the foregoing duties whereby a pleasurable association to the child will be assured.

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